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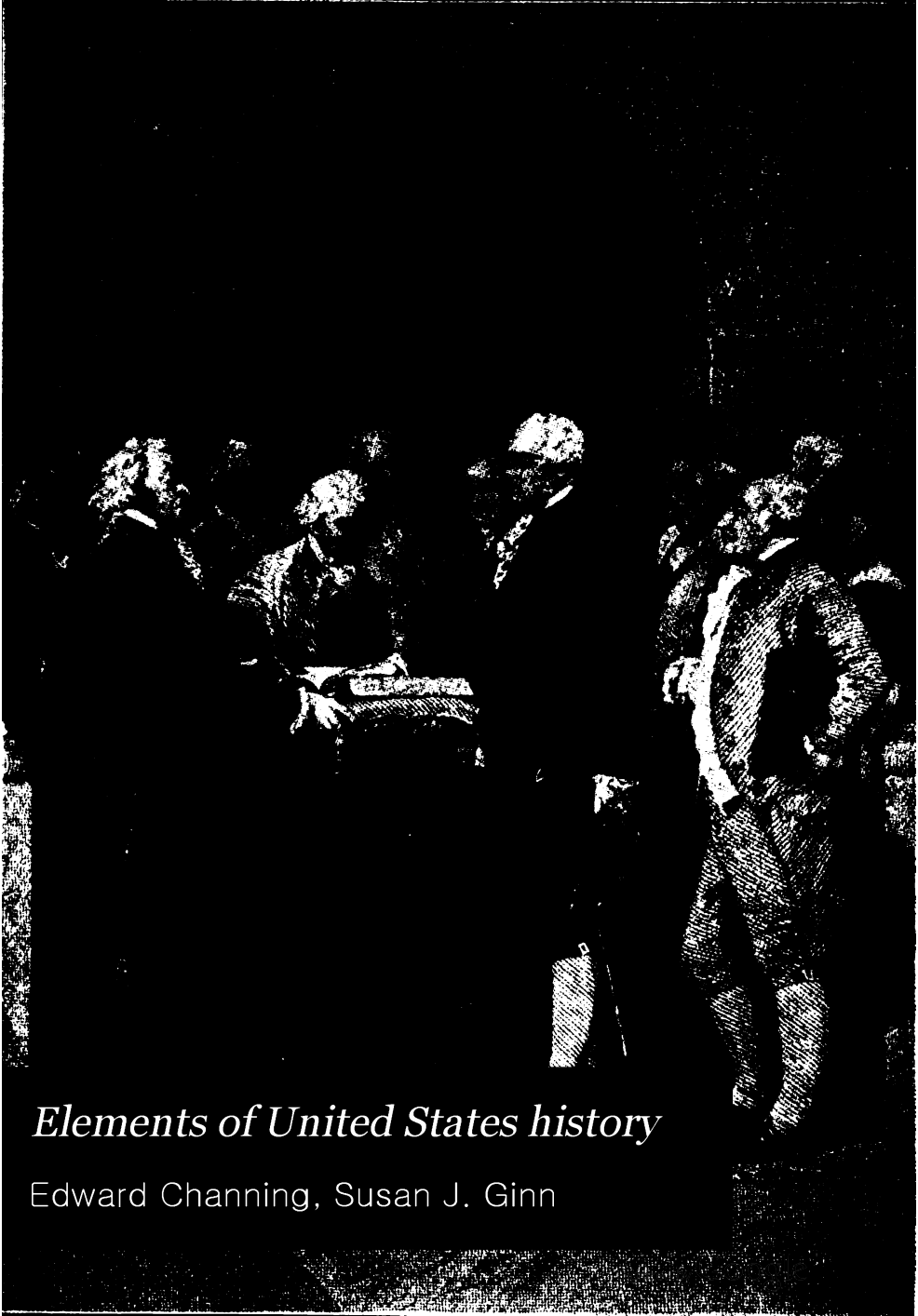
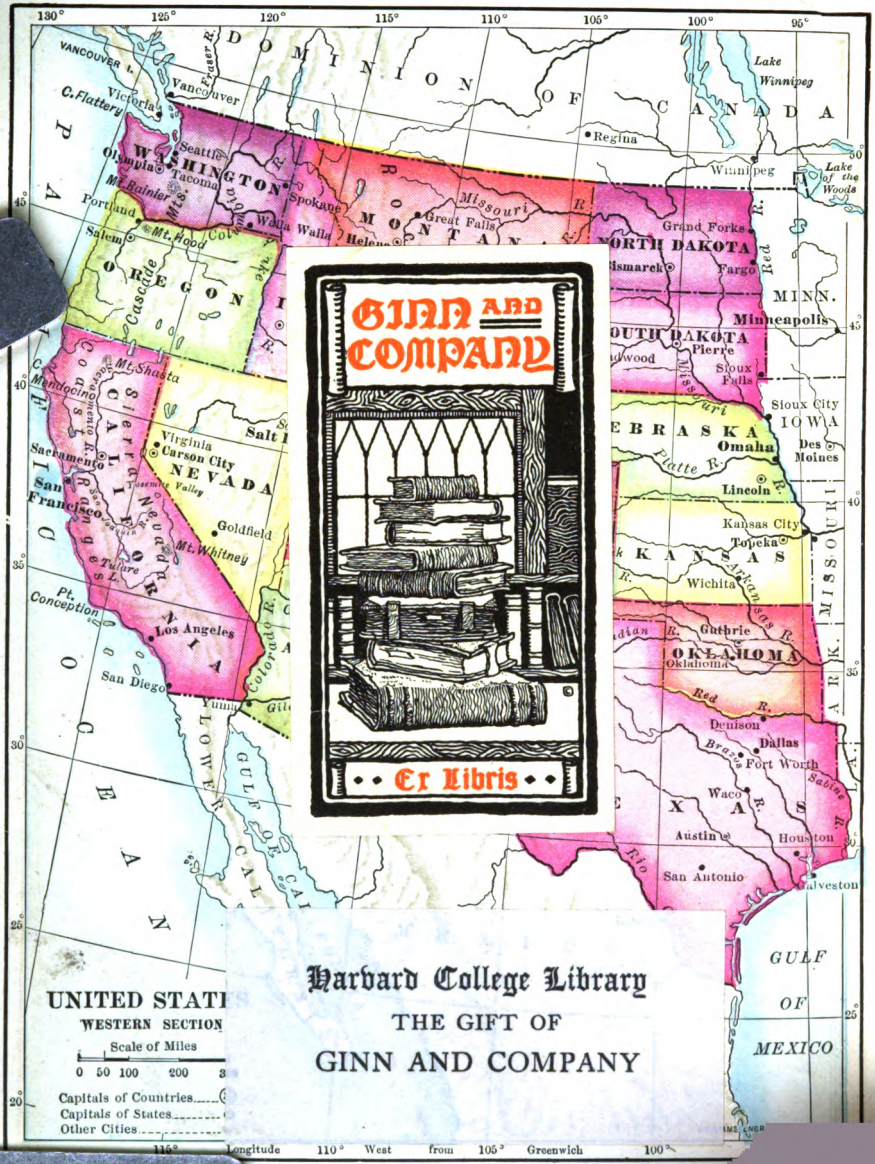


Elements of United States history

Edward Channing, Susan J. Ginn



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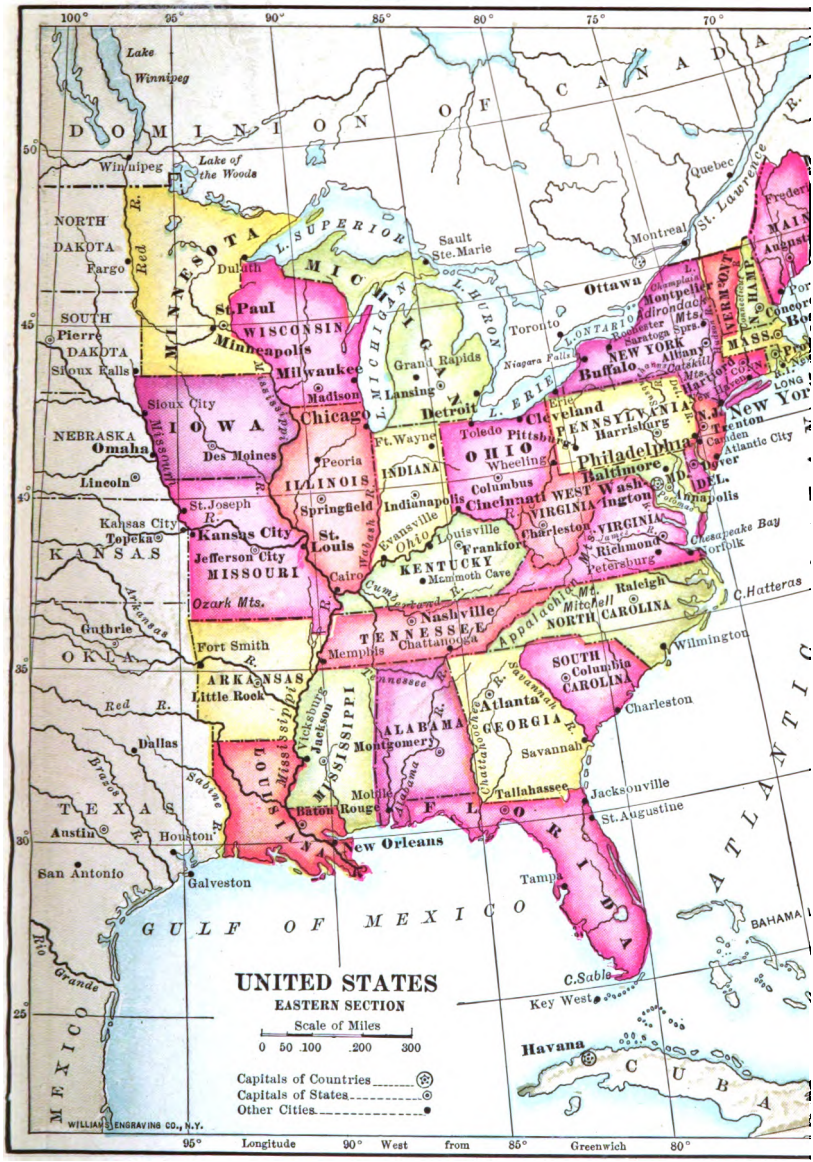

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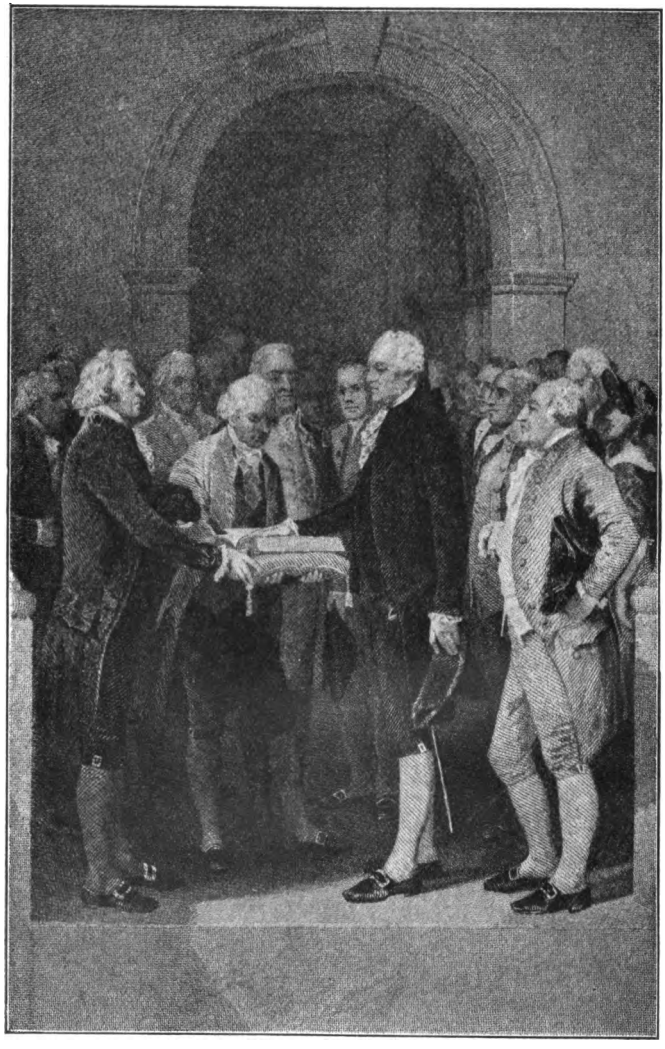

INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON

(Washington is in the centre; on the right of the picture is Vice-president John Adams)

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ELEMENTS

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

BY

EDWARD CHANNING

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY
AUTHOR OF "A STUDENTS' HISTORY OF THE
UNITED STATES," ETC.

IN CONSULTATION WITH

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PREFATORY NOTE

In writing this book, the author has had in mind the presentation of the essential facts in our history in a clear, brief manner, with such explanations, by means of maps, pictures, and foot-notes, as the size of the work permitted. In its preparation the pupil's point of view and peculiar needs have been kept constantly in mind, and the author wishes to express his gratitude to Miss Ginn for her very helpful suggestions and advice. She also kindly drew many of the maps which are inserted in the text, prepared the topical reviews which follow the several divisions of the book, and devised the questions that are printed in Appendix V. He further wishes to express his obligation to Miss Eva G. Moore for many thoughtful suggestions, and especially for her aid in the preparation of the biographical notes and of Appendix IV with its accompanying map. Bibliographies of books of American history which are suitable for school use are now so plentiful that it has not seemed wise to add to the bulk of this volume by the insertion of such lists.

In teaching American history, the fact that it is an account of a development should always be present in the teacher's mind, and each teacher should, by question and suggestion, lead the pupils themselves to look upon it as a continuous story instead of as a succession of events, some of them interesting, but more of them inexpressibly dull. The incidents themselves may be made more interesting and graphic by the use of many devices: — school plays

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and pageants, introducing leading characters in American history; and the compiling of picture scrap-books telling the country's story, or portions of it, by illustrations drawn from magazines, advertisements, and guide books of railroads, steamship lines, etc. At every stage opportunity should be grasped to connect the past history with the occurrences of the present, and to impress upon the pupils their public duties and the crucial importance of good citizenship in a self-governing state and nation.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
April, 1910.

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I

DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION, 1000–1606

THE GREAT DISCOVERERS

1. **Leif Ericsson discovers America, 1000.** — In the summer of the year 1000 Leif Ericsson (Līf Er′īk-son), the Northman, set sail from Norway for Greenland to visit his father, Eric the Red, who was the chief man among the Norse settlers in that country. Days, weeks, and months went by, and, at length, Leif and his companions came within sight of land. It did not seem like the coast of Greenland; in fact, it was an unknown land to them. After tarrying there to refresh themselves, they steered northward and arrived at Greenland in the autumn, rescuing a shipwrecked crew on the way. Leif's reports of the wonderful new land were so interesting that many expeditions were made to it. There the explorers found currants and other wineberries like those from which the Northmen made wine, — for they had no grapes in their northern home, — so they called the land Wineland, and added to it "the Good" because it was so much better than Greenland. Settlements were made there, but how long they lasted we cannot tell. Wineland was probably what we now call

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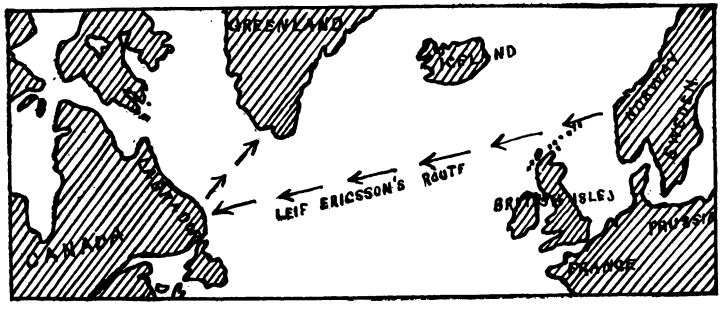
Labrador, and perhaps its southern bounds extended as far as New England. Leif Ericsson and the Northmen,[1] therefore, were the first Europeans to come to America. They did not remain, however, and America had to be discovered all over again.



2. Japan, China, and India. — Leif Ericsson and the men of his time lived very simply. They had no coffee, tea, sugar, pepper, or other spices, and they lacked carpets, silken cloths, and countless other things which came from eastern lands. The crusaders in their expeditions to the Holy Land, in Asia Minor, came to know and to like these eastern luxuries. Soon kings and great nobles began to demand spices and other oriental things. Then the richer people wanted them, too. These luxuries were brought to the Mediterranean, especially to Venice and Genoa, by caravans[2] from

[1] The Northmen were the hardiest seamen of their time. Some of them conquered England; others settled in western France, in Normandy; others sailed into the Mediterranean (Mĕd′ĭ-ter-rā′ne-an) and settled in Sicily (Sĭs′ĭ-lĭ) and southern Italy. Still others sailed to Iceland, whence Eric the Red led a band to Greenland, which he so called because the name would attract more settlers to that country.

[2] Kăr′ă-văn, a company of travellers or merchants equipped for a long journey, especially through deserts. You will probably find a picture of one in your geography. Notice the camels which are used for carrying goods across deserts.

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China through central Asia, or by water from India to the Arabian Gulf, and thence overland through Asia Minor.

3. **Marco Polo.** — Among the Italian travellers to go to China and India in search of articles of trade and jewels was Marco Polo (Mar′ko Po′lo). After his return home he wrote a wonderful book telling about the countries of the East. He told especially of an island kingdom off the eastern coast of China, called Cipango (Chi′păn-go), which we now know as Japan. He never actually saw the island, because the Japanese were very warlike and disliked strangers. He wrote down what other people told him, and his stories attracted much attention. Gold and silver were very scarce in those days in Europe, for almost none of those precious metals was produced there. In Japan, gold was said to be so plentiful that the Japanese used it for the floors of the royal palaces, instead of tiles, and even covered the roofs of these buildings with it, as we cover our houses with tin. China, too, was a marvellous country and full of riches, and so, also, was India. The eastern trade routes, along some of which the caravans passed, met at Constantinople. In 1453, the Turks captured this city. They at once put an end to this commerce between China, India, and other eastern lands and the countries of western Europe.

4. **New routes to the East.** — Italy was the home of seamen. When there were no more goods to carry away from Constantinople in their vessels, Italian sailors went to other countries, especially to Spain and Portugal, to find employment. One of the princes of the latter kingdom was greatly interested in navigation and was constantly sending out expeditions to sail along the western coast of Africa, in the hope of finding a sea route to India. This

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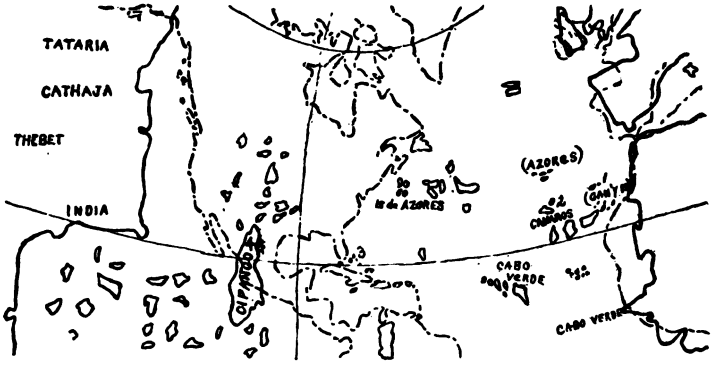
was actually done in the year 1498 by a brave Portuguese sailor.[1]

5. **Early ideas about the shape of the earth.** — Among other famous men to come to Portugal was Martin Behaim (Bā'hīm). He was a scientific German geographer. Going back to Germany in the summer of 1492, he made a globe



Sketch from Behaim's Globe, with America drawn in. (Columbus thought that he sailed from 2 for 4; in reality he sailed from 1 and discovered land at 3.)

which is still to be seen and copied. Most people in those early times thought the earth was flat, but Behaim not only thought it was round, but that it was a great deal smaller than it really is and that Japan was only three or four thousand miles west of Europe instead of twelve thousand miles that we now know it to be.

6. **Christopher Columbus.** — The most famous of all the men to come to Portugal in these years was Christopher Columbus. He was a native of Genoa in northern Italy. He had gone to sea when a mere boy and had sailed north-

[1] Vasco da Gama (Văs'co dä Gä'mä) succeeded in sailing round the Cape of Good Hope and reached the coast of India, where he established a trading post. Thus the Portuguese obtained control of India and held it for over a century.

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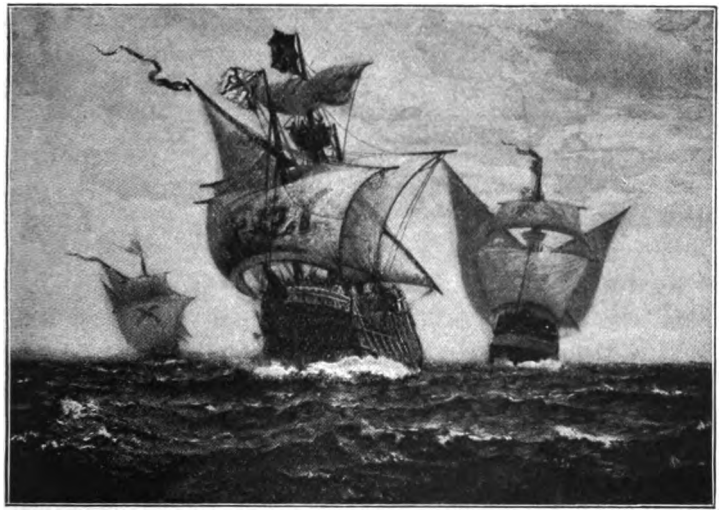
ward as far as Iceland and southward along the western shores of Africa. Like Behaim and other scientific men of the time, he thought that the earth was round, and that Japan and India could be reached by sailing westwardly across the Atlantic. For years he tried to induce the kings



The Fleet of Columbus.

of western Europe to send him on an exploring expedition across the great ocean.[1] The king of Portugal was the only one who paid much attention to him, and he proved to be false. He secretly sent a captain of his own to test

[1] Columbus was born between the years 1436 and 1451. The old accounts are very indistinct and it is difficult to find the exact date. In all he made four voyages to the New World: he discovered (1) 1492, San Salvador, Cuba, and San Domingo; (2) 1493, he led a colony to San Domingo and discovered Jamaica, Porto Rico, etc.; (3) 1498, he entered the Orinoco River and saw a part of South America; (4) 1502, he sailed along the mainland of Central America. He was called "the Admiral of the Ocean Sea" and later came to be known as the "First Admiral" or sometimes as the "Old Admiral." He died poor and neglected in Spain in 1506.

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the truth of the idea, while Columbus was waiting for his money; but this captain was afraid and turned back before he had gone very far. Finally, the king and queen of Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella, fell in with the idea. They had very little faith that Columbus would ever come back, but the treasurer[1] of their kingdom loaned them the money to pay part of the cost of the trip, and the friends of Columbus made up the rest. With three vessels, he set sail from the Spanish town of Palos (Pä'lōs) early in August, 1492. He first went to the Canaries and thence steered due west into the Sea of Darkness.[2]

7. **Columbus finds America, 1492.**—Columbus's crews had no belief in the truth of his ideas. Instead of taking them to India, they thought he was taking them to destruction. After sailing for a time, they looked eagerly for land and fancied they saw it, even before the Canaries had faded out of sight, but it proved to be a cloud. Eight days later, they again thought they saw signs of land. Nearly every day for a month they saw one thing or another which seemed to indicate that land was not far off, but no land appeared. When, at length, the search seemed to be hopeless, they thought of compelling Columbus to turn back; but he told them it was of no use for them to make any such suggestion, for he had started to go to India and to India he was going. At other times, they tried to trick him,—for, one night, coming on deck suddenly, he found the *Santa Maria* (Sān'tā Mā'rēă), his flagship, sailing

[1] This treasurer was a Jew, Luis Sant Angel (Sānt Ăng'l). It was fortunate that he believed in the enterprise, for Ferdinand and Isabella had no money, and the queen's jewels had long ago been pledged to carry on the wars in which these monarchs were constantly engaged.

[2] The Atlantic Ocean, or Sea of Darkness, was supposed by the people of that time to be the abode of monsters who dragged sailors from their ships and devoured them. It was thought to have islands which were inhabited by cannibals and by creatures that were partly human and partly animal.

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straight for Spain instead of for Japan. He could not see the other vessels, the *Pinta* (Peen'tā) and *Nina* (Neen'yā), but he knew they, too, were steering northeastwardly, because they always followed a big lantern which was kept burning at the stern of his ship to guide them. He soon had the fleet headed about again for Asia and Japan.[1] The sailors were especially frightened when they ran into the midst of vast fields of seaweed that extended as far as the eye could see, for they feared that they could never get out of it again. Columbus steered northward for a while, then as soon as the sea became clear, turned westward and then southwestward to get back to his former course. Finally, when the strain had become very great, they saw a notched stick in the water, and then the branch of a bush with the flowers still fresh on it. That night, as the sun went down, each one kept a sharper watch than ever before. Columbus, peering out into the darkness, saw a light flare up, go out; again flare up and again disappear. He called one of the men to see it, but it did not again blaze out. The next morning at two o'clock, the lookout on the *Pinta* saw the gleam of a sandy beach in the moonlight. The fleet at once rounded to, and all hands waited eagerly for the dawn.

8. The landing of Columbus. — When the sun rose on the morning of October 12, 1492, there, in front of them, was a green, tree-covered island. Launching the small boats, Columbus went ashore. He took with him the royal standard. The captain of the other vessels had two ban-

[1] Improvements in the instruments used by sailors for finding their way over the pathless sea made Columbus's voyage possible. The most important of these was the compass. It was still a very rude affair, — only a magnetized needle tied to a straw, and floating in a bowl of water, — but it was better than nothing. To tell the time Columbus had a sand-glass that needed to be turned every half hour instead of a watch or a chronometer such as ship captains have nowadays.

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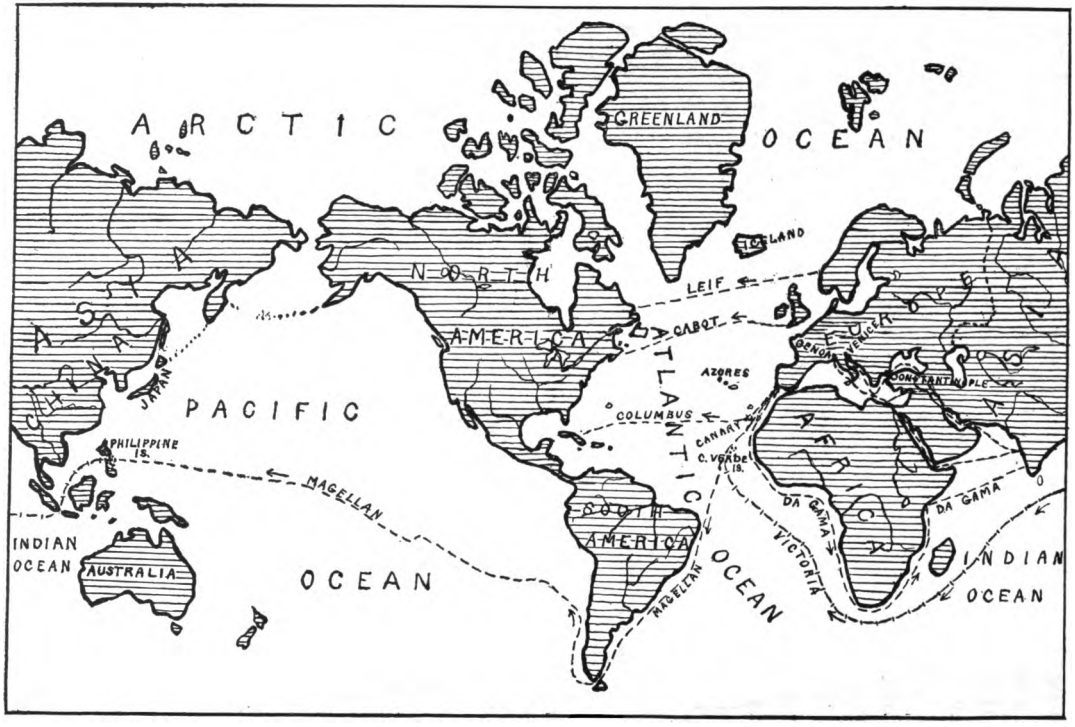

Routes of the Great Discoverers.

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ners of the Green Cross bearing the initials of Ferdinand and Isabella. Each letter was surmounted by a crown. Kneeling on the sand, the navigators gave thanks to God who had brought them safely so far on their perilous quest, and called the island San Salvador (San Säl′vä dōr′), which meant Holy Saviour. While the Spaniards were praying, strange men and women came out of the woods

The Landing of Columbus.

that fringed the shore and gazed wonderingly at Columbus and his companions. They believed the white people to be gods who had come from the skies. Instead of attacking the intruders, they were very friendly. Later the natives swam out to the boats. They brought balls of spun cotton, parrots, and spears tipped with fish bones which they exchanged for glass beads and little bells. One of them had a small piece of gold hanging from a hole in his nose, and by signs told Columbus that to the southward there was an island where this precious metal was plentiful. Columbus called these people Indians, for had he not

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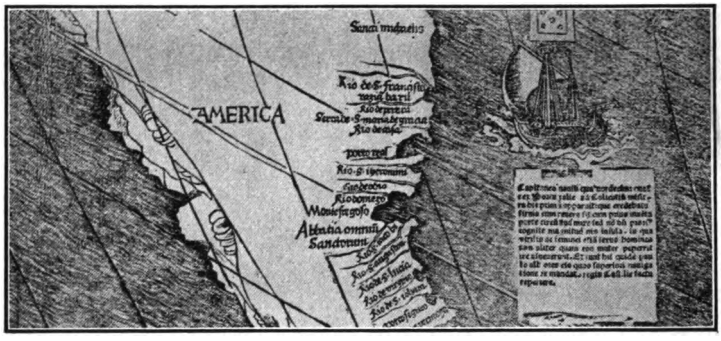
reached the Indies? When Columbus returned to Spain, the news of his discoveries rapidly spread.[1] In September, 1493, with twelve hundred persons in seventeen vessels, he again sailed from Spain to take possession of the newly found lands and to push his explorations still further.

9. **The New World is named America.** — Expeditions now followed in rapid succession. In 1498, Columbus,



himself, found a New World in the lands of the Orinoco (Ō-rĭ-nō′ko) and northern coast of South America, and so stated in a letter to King Ferdinand. Nobody paid any attention to this statement, and very few persons knew of it because the letter was not printed until ten years later. Another Italian, Americus Vespucius[2] (Ā-mĕ′ri-cŭs Vĕs-pu′cius), by name, visited the lands around the Caribbean (Kăr′ĭb-bē′an) Sea, at about the time that Columbus first saw the New World. Americus wrote most interesting accounts of what he had seen. These were printed in

[1] The use of the printing-press had become sufficiently common by this time for the news of Columbus's discovery to be widespread and not to remain almost unknown as had been the case with the earlier voyages of the Northmen.

[2] Americus Vespucius came from the city of Florence in Italy. He made more than one voyage to the New World and wrote several letters. He finally became the chief chart-maker to the king of Spain, and died in 1512 ignorant of the fact that the New World had been named for him.

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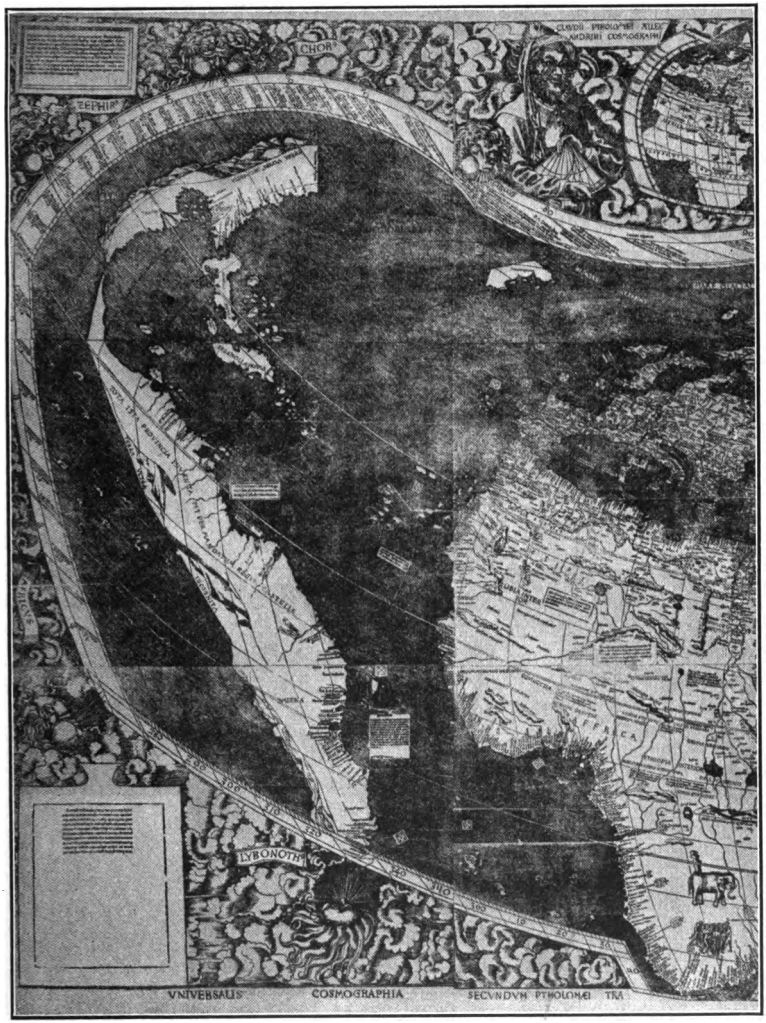

The American Portion of the Waldseemüller Map, 1507 (see p. 12). This is the earliest printed map to bear the word "America" (this part is printed in larger size on p. 10).

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several languages and distributed far and wide. In one of these books Americus declared that he had found a New World. People reading this thought that the New World had been discovered by Americus and so they called it America. The name was first applied to what we call South America by a teacher of geography named Waldseemüller (Walt′zā-mül-er). Some years later when it became certain that the northern lands, which John Cabot (§ 20) and others had found, were likewise not parts of Asia, the name America was given to the northern continent, also. We still call the islands that Columbus discovered the Indies, but we prefix the word "West" to distinguish them from the East Indies which lie off the southern shore of Asia.

10. Balboa sees the Pacific, 1513. — On his fourth voyage in 1502, Columbus visited the shores of Central America

Balboa gazing at the Pacific, "Silent, upon a peak in Darien."

and the Isthmus of Panama (Păn-a-mä′). The natives gave him to understand that beyond the mountains, which came down to the sea, was another great water like that

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over which he had sailed. The story did not interest him, but it did excite the curiosity of a Spaniard, Balboa (Băl-bō′ä), especially because the Indians further said that on the shores of this other sea were lands rich in gold and silver.[1] Thus it happened that one day in 1513, Balboa found himself on the top of a mountain, and before his eyes there stretched away in the distance the waters of a great ocean.

11. Magellan completes Columbus's and Balboa's work. — In 1519, a Portuguese nobleman, Magellan (Ma-jĕl′an), sailing in the service of the Spanish king, set out to discover a passage, or strait, through the American continent, by which he could reach the lands of Asia. Sailing far to the south, he passed through a strait which we still call Magellan for him. From its western end, he first followed up the coast of South America for a little way. Then he steered northwestwardly directly away from land across the immense waste of water which he named the Pacific Ocean, because it happened to be calm when he first saw it. The weeks and the months passed slowly by and still the ships held on their course. When the crews were nearly dying of starvation, they sighted some little islands where they got enough food to last them until they reached the Philippines (Fĭl′ip-pĭnes).[2] There Magellan was killed by the natives. One of his vessels, the *Victoria*, continued her westward way to the Indian Ocean, which was already known to the Portuguese. She then passed the Cape of Good Hope at the southern end of Africa and followed the western shore of that dark continent, and so northward to Spain. When these first round-the-world voyagers reached

[1] The Indians were right, for Peru proved to be very rich; but Balboa was killed before he could explore its coasts.

[2] This discovery of the Philippines was later followed by their occupation by the Spaniards, which continued until these islands were recently transferred to the United States (§ 419).

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home with their story, they were promptly put into prison as impostors.

12. **Summary.** — The Northmen discovered the New World, only to forget it; Columbus found it again. Balboa first saw the Pacific Ocean; Magellan and his men proved that the known parts of America were far away from Japan and Asia, and that the earth was very much larger than people had formerly thought it was. Finally, the crew of the *Victoria* proved that the earth was a sphere by actually sailing around it.

THE SPANIARDS IN THE UNITED STATES

13. **De Leon names Florida, 1513.** — Explorers by the score came to the shores of what are now the southeastern states of the American Union. One of these, Ponce de Leon (Pōn′thā dā Lā-ōn′), set out to find the land of Bimini, where there was said to be gold in plenty and also a wonderful fountain of youth. He landed on the east coast of Florida; but the Indians were so fierce and so numerous that he soon sailed away again without finding either the gold or the fountain.[1]

14. **De Soto in the Southeast.** — The most famous of these expeditions is the one that was led by De Soto (Dā So′to). Landing on the western coast of Florida in 1539, he and his men went northward to the Savannah (Sa-văn′a) River in search of a rich city. Not finding it, they wandered southwardly and westwardly to Mobile Bay. None of the other Spaniards were so fierce as De Soto and his men. They brought from Spain chains of iron and dogs

[1] Ponce de Leon came to America with Columbus in 1493. He saw Florida for the first time on Easter Sunday, 1513. The Spanish name for Easter is Pascua de los Flores; hence he called the land Florida. De Leon was not the first Spaniard to see Florida, but the name he gave it came to be applied to all the territory in North America which the Spaniards claimed to belong to them east of the Mississippi.

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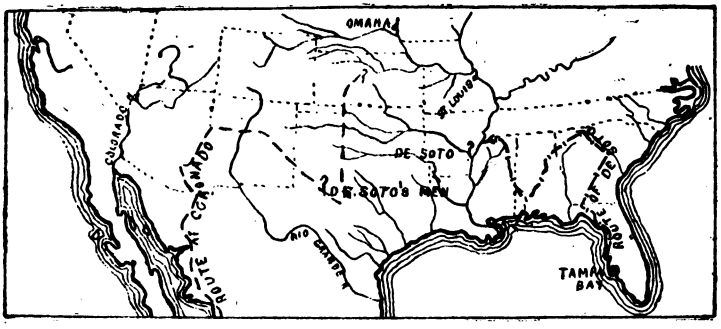
of the bloodhound breed. Wherever they went, they captured the natives, chaining them together, and sometimes when the captives broke loose and ran away, they hunted them with the dogs. Near Mobile Bay, the Spaniards came to a great Indian village. Expecting them, the Indians had gathered thousands of armed men at that place. De Soto attacked the Indians and overcame them,



The Marches of Coronado and De Soto.

but during the fight most of the Spanish baggage was destroyed by fire.

15. De Soto crosses the Mississippi River. — After this disaster, De Soto marched to the Mississippi (Mĭs′ĭs-ĭp′ĭ),[1] which the Spaniards crossed in the vicinity of the present city of Memphis (Mĕm′fĭs), Tennessee. On the western side of the river, they marched over a large part of the state of Arkansas, and later went even as far as western Texas. While they were in Arkansas, De Soto died. His men were afraid to let the natives know of their leader's death for fear of being attacked. In the dead of night they carried De Soto's body out to the middle of the Mississippi and sunk it in the midst of the waters. All

[1] This great river had already been seen by at least two parties of Spaniards; but its discovery is sometimes associated with the name of De Soto.

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this they did as silently and quietly as they could. The Indians, nevertheless, missed the leader. Asking where he was, they were told that he had gone to Heaven on a visit and would soon return. The remnant of De Soto's band reached the settlements in Mexico which the Spaniards had conquered a few years earlier.

16. Story of the Seven Cities. — For centuries, the Spaniards and other people of western Europe had an idea that out in the Atlantic, somewhere, were Seven Cities in which lived rich people who had great quantities of gold and precious stones. Columbus and other seamen found island after island, but they never saw the Seven Cities. At length some shipwrecked Spaniards[1] came to the governor of Mexico with definite information that these cities were not far to the northward of the Spanish settlements in Mexico. He sent a scouting party to prove this report. The leader returning stated that the story was true, that he had seen one of the cities in the distance and that it looked larger than the capital city of Mexico.

17. Coronado finds the Pueblos, 1540. — In 1540, Coronado (Ko-ro-nä'do), wearing a splendid suit of gilded armor, appeared before the first of these cities at the head of a great expedition. The inhabitants did not like the looks of these Spaniards and refused to admit them within their walls. After a hard fight the Spaniards were successful and entered the first city, finding it to be an Indian village or pueblo (pwĕb'lō). These great Indian houses are full of interest for the student of manners and customs, but this one and others that the Spaniards captured were full of disappointment for Coronado and his men. They had

[1] These refugees were four in number, one of them being a negro. They had lost their vessels on the coast of Florida, and had gone by water to the shore of Texas in boats which they built, and then overland from that place to the western shore of Mexico.

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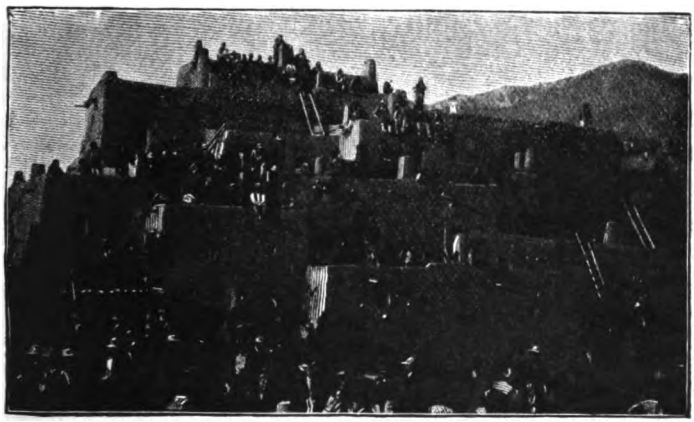
come to find gold and silver; they found wonderful earthen pots and woven cloth. An expedition that was sent off to the west came to a tremendous cut in the earth's surface, fully a mile in depth. At the bottom was what appeared to be a little brook flowing between steep walls; the Indian guide said that it was really a wide river. This was the Grand Canyon (Kăn′yŭn) of the Colorado (Kŏl′o-



A Pueblo.

rä′dō). On the east, another exploring party found great plains where there were no mountains or trees, but there, again, as in the first case, there was no gold.

18. Coronado goes to Kansas. — On the latter expedition, the Spaniards captured a native who looked more like a Turk than he did like an Indian. Not only was he unlike the dwellers of the pueblos, but he had wonderful stories to tell of a great city, far to the north, where there was gold in abundance. Coronado, therefore, took the best of his men and rode northward on horseback. Soon, he came to the immense plains or prairies of the West. These were rolling like the waves of the ocean, and nowhere was there

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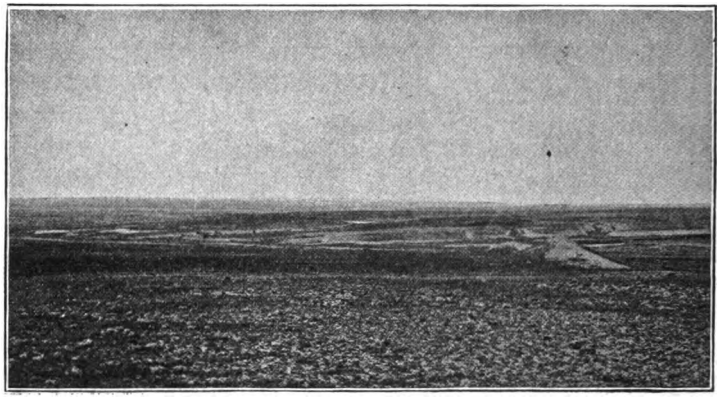
any mountain or hill to serve as a landmark for a man who might lose his way. On the plains, there were thousands upon thousands of animals that looked like wild cows, except that they were hunchbacked and had wool on their shoulders instead of hair. They were American bison or buffaloes. Near the southern boundary of the state of



The Great Plains.

Kansas, the Spaniards came to the great city which turned out to be a village of the Indians of the prairies. These natives were red in color, like the other Indians, but they dwelt in tents made of buffalo skins instead of in houses of stone, like those of the pueblos. Again, there was no gold or silver. This last disappointment was too much for the explorers. They strangled the Turk and made the best of their way back to the homes that they had left in Mexico. In 1550, there was not a Spaniard left within the limits of the United States on the continent.[1]

19. **Summary.** — De Leon gave Florida its name; De Soto marched over the country which now comprises

[1] The Spaniards found great quantities of gold and silver in Peru and Mexico.

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the Southern States; and Coronado explored the Southwest. The Spaniards did not value this land because they found neither gold nor silver in it. There were no Spanish settlements within the continental limits of the United States in 1550. Later (1565) St. Augustine was founded; it is the oldest town in North America (§ 26).

ENGLISH EXPLORERS

20. **John Cabot finds North America for England, 1497.** — Like Columbus and Americus, John Cabot was an Italian, but unlike them he sailed in the service of the king of England instead of that of the monarchs of Spain. In the year 1497, he sailed from Bristol, England, in a small ship. Passing to the south of Ireland, he crossed the North Atlantic and in about four weeks anchored his ship off the coast of Asia; at least, so he said on his return to England. In reality, he landed on the shore of North America, somewhere to the northward of the city of Halifax in Nova Scotia. He met with no inhabitants, but he found certain tools that could have been used only by men. The next year he again sailed from Bristol, but we know nothing about his further doings. The Cabot explorations are important because it was upon them about one hundred years later that Queen Elizabeth based her right to send settlers to North America.[1]

21. **Sir Francis Drake.** — In the time of Queen Elizabeth (1558–1603), English navigators began to take an interest in making voyages away from the coast of the British Islands. Of these seamen the greatest was Sir Francis Drake.[2] Landing at a Spanish settlement, he

[1] John Cabot's son, Sebastian, later entered the Spanish service and became a famous man. It is supposed that he sailed on this voyage with his father.

[2] Hawkins and Drake and other English seamen carried specimens of the potato plant to England. It had first been introduced into Europe from

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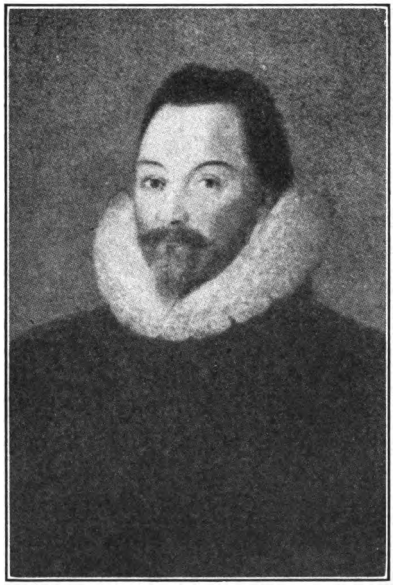
would station his men at the gates and then invite the governor, or mayor, to pay down a handsome sum. If there was any trouble about this, Drake would capture the town and take away everything of value. After he and other English seamen had done this for some years, the Spaniards fortified their seaports so strongly that it was no longer easy to capture them. Drake then thought of sailing through Magellan Strait into the Pacific and plundering the Spanish towns on the western or Pacific coast, where no one would be on the lookout for him. Gaining the Pacific without any one suspecting it, he suddenly appeared off one of the principal towns of Peru (1578). Going ashore, he and his crew found a man lying fast asleep and beside him were several bars of silver. "We took the silver, and left the man," so they said. Proceeding up the coast, Drake came across a great treasure ship laden with silver. She, too, proved an easy prey to the Englishmen. With his vessel thus freighted with more gold and silver than any Englishman had ever seen at one time before, Drake sailed northward.



Sir Francis Drake.

America by the Spaniards in Columbus's lifetime. It did not become a common article of food in English countries until the period of the American Revolution.

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Near the entrance of San Francisco Bay he landed, unloaded his ship, cleaned her and repaired her rigging. While he was thus engaged, the natives of that region visited him and hailed him as their chief. In return, he took possession of the country for England, naming it New Albion, since England was sometimes called Albion on account of the white cliffs that bordered portions of her shores. Steering westwardly from New Albion, Drake crossed the Pacific and the Indian Ocean and ranged up the African coast, reaching England in safety, — the first commander to take his ship around the world. This exploit found favor in Queen Elizabeth's eyes; she knighted Drake on the quarter-deck of his ship and took part of the plunder as the price of her protection.

22. **Sir Walter Raleigh and Virginia.** — One of the most famous men in Elizabeth's court was Sir Walter Raleigh (Raw'lĭ).[1] Like Drake and so many other adventurous men, he was a native of the County of Devon. He was high in Elizabeth's favor. She gave him very many valuable things, — money and great estates, and all of Virginia, as the English called the land which they claimed on the Atlantic seaboard of North America. This had been explored by men whom Raleigh had sent out. She not only gave him this land to trade in and settle, but authorized him to govern any Englishmen who might come to Virginia. Several attempts were made to plant colonies there, but they all failed, because the arrival of the great fleet from Spain for the conquest of England made it impossible to send supplies to the settlers or to spare men to protect them from the Indians.

23. **The Spanish Armada.** — Philip II, king of Spain, was greatly annoyed by the doings of Drake and the other

[1] He signed his name Ralegh not Raleigh. In 1792 the name Raleigh was given to the capital of North Carolina.

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seamen of England, and also by these expeditions to North America, for he asserted that Englishmen had no right to go to that region. As Elizabeth paid very little attention to the complaints of his ambassador, the Spanish king decided to fit out a great fleet, or "armada" as the word is in Spanish, and send it to sink the fleets of England and conquer her land forces. Drake and the English sea-dogs met the Armada soon after it entered the Channel. Drake's ship was the *Revenge*, one of the most famous vessels that ever sailed the seas. Years after, when commanded by Sir Richard Grenville, single-handed, she fought a Spanish fleet of fifty-three. Now, she led in the attack on the Armada, sending one Spanish ship after another to the bottom or captive to England. The roar of the English guns and the skill of the seamen frightened the Spaniards so thoroughly that they have never recovered from the shock. After this crushing blow, English vessels carrying colonists could safely sail through the Spanish Indies and land their passengers on the shores of North America.

24. **Summary.** — John Cabot found North America. Drake and the English seamen in Queen Elizabeth's reign plundered the Spanish settlements in America. Drake visited California and sailed around the world. Sir Walter Raleigh tried to plant English colonies in North America. The Spanish king sent a great expedition to conquer England; it was beaten off and the seas were made safer for English seamen and colonists.

FRENCH EXPLORERS

25. **Verrazano and Cartier visit America.** — Spaniards and Englishmen were not the only Europeans to interest themselves in America. In 1524, Francis I, king of

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France, sent an Italian seaman, Verrazano (Vĕr-rä-tsä′no) by name, to explore the shores of North America. He sailed along the coast from Chesapeake Bay to the Bay of Fundy. On his way, he entered lower New York Harbor, but did not sail up to the mouth of Hudson River. Ten years later (1534), Cartier (Kar′tyȧ′), a Frenchman born and bred, reached the American coast near where John Cabot had seen it many years before. Cartier sailed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence and saw the entrance of a strait which he certainly thought would lead to China. The next year he sailed through the strait and entered the St. Lawrence River. Leaving his vessel near a mighty cliff, which the Indians called Quebec (Kwę-bĕk′), he went up the river in a rowboat until he came to the rapids at Montreal. These barred further progress to China and were later called the Lachine (La-shēēn′) Rapids (the China Rapids) for that reason.

26. The French in Florida.—For years after Cartier's failure to find a waterway to China through North America, Frenchmen gave little heed to that region. In 1564, a band of Frenchmen made a settlement on the banks of the St. John's River in Florida, calling their post Fort Caroline. The Spaniards resented this because their vessels returning home laden with the silver of Mexico passed along the Florida coast and they did not want Frenchmen to be near. They sent over an expedition commanded by Melendez, or Menendez (Mȧ-nĕn′deth). He killed most of the Frenchmen, drove the others away,

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and founded the town of St. Augustine (1565). It is still in existence and is the oldest town in the United States or in any part of North America, north of Mexico.

27. **The founding of Acadia and New France.** — Nearly fifty years now passed away before the French made another attempt to settle in North America. In 1604, Champlain[1] and a band of colonists settled on an island not far from the present town of Eastport in the state of Maine. They did not like this situation very well, so the next year they moved across the Bay of Fundy and founded the town of Port Royal (1605). It is now called Annapolis and is the oldest town in North America north of St. Augustine. The country round about Port Royal they named Acadia. Champlain soon returned to France, but in 1608 came to America again and built a trading post at Quebec, which in time grew into the capital of Canada or New France, as the French called their colonies on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes.

28. **Summary.** — Verrazano for France visited the Atlantic seashore of the United States, 1524. Cartier, a Frenchman, explored the St. Lawrence, 1534, 1535. Frenchmen planted a colony in Florida, 1564, but were killed or driven off by the Spaniards. In 1605, Frenchmen settled Port Royal in Acadia and in 1608, founded Quebec.

It is important to keep in mind the events that have just been studied because European monarchs divided

[1] Samuel de Champlain, the "Father of New France," was born in 1567 at Brouage, a small seaport of southwestern France, on the Bay of Biscay. His father was a naval officer and Champlain himself became a sailor. He visited the West Indies and the Isthmus of Panama and strongly advocated the cutting a ship canal across that isthmus because it would shorten the way to the South Sea by thousands of miles. On his voyages along the New England coast, he visited Mount Desert Island, Plymouth Harbor, and Cape Cod. He died at Quebec on Christmas Day, 1635.

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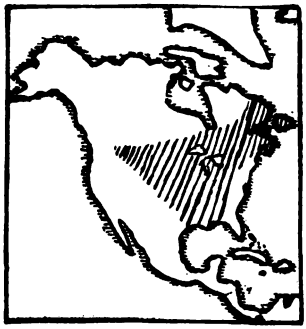
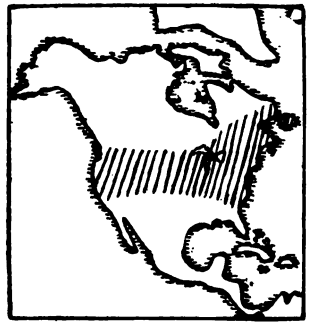
American lands between themselves according to the discoveries of their seamen and explorers. The Spaniards claimed all America by right of Columbus's discovery. The explorations of De Soto, Coronado, and others gave them a very strong claim to the southern part of the United States which was made still stronger by the founding of St. Augustine (1565). The English claimed all of North America by right of John Cabot's discovery, but they made no permanent settlement before 1607 at Jamestown. The Frenchmen claimed to have especial rights in the North by reason of the voyage of Cartier and the settlements at Port Royal (1605) and Quebec (1608).

Spanish Claims.



French Claims.



English Claims.

THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS

29. Whence came the Indians. — Wherever the explorers went, they found human beings already living there. These

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were called Indians, following Columbus's name, but they might well have been termed the Red Men. They all belonged to one great branch of the human family and were unlike any other of the races of men. Their hair was coarse and straight. Their skins were reddish or copper colored, and their faces were thin with prominent cheek bones. There have been many ideas as to their origin. Some people have thought that their ancestors crossed over from Asia by way of Bering (Bē'ring)[1] Strait; but others thought that perhaps they had originally come in a vessel that had been blown off from Asiatic lands. Another idea is that they are the descendants of people who lived in America thousands of years ago at the time when ice covered the northern parts of the continent as far south as Long Island and the Ohio Valley. Still another idea is that they are the descendants of Europeans who were shipwrecked on the Atlantic coast. The American Indians are so unlike the other races that none of these ideas seems quite to explain their beginning.

30. **The Mound-builders.** — Years and years ago, there dwelt in the Ohio Valley, and in some other parts of the United States, people who erected huge forts, the ruins of which have the form of mounds or very small hills. Many of these contain remains of tools and other implements which must have been used by these early men. Whether these mound-builders, as they are called, were the ancestors of the Red Men or whether their race has disappeared entirely from the earth we do not know.

31. **Divisions of the Indian race.** — Although the Red Men belonged to one race, there were many distinct divisions among them. None of the North American Indians were civilized, although the dwellers in the pueblos came

[1] The name is sometimes spelled Behring.

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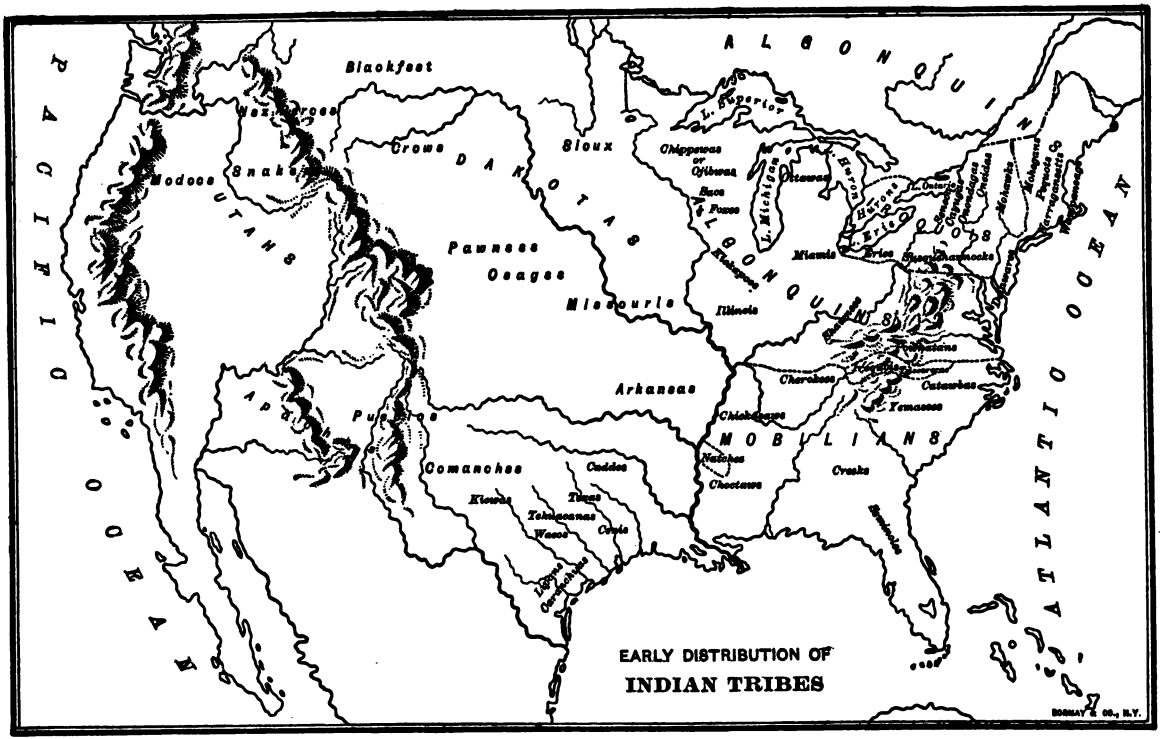

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nearest to being so. Next in the scale of civilization came the Cherokees (Chĕr′ō̇-kēz′), and other tribes who lived in the country between the Ohio River and the Gulf of Mexico. These natives knew how to weave a coarse cloth, and had houses made of the bark of trees, and lived in towns. North of these and of the Carolinas, on the Atlantic coast, were the Indians of the Delaware race, the Iroquois (Ir′ō̇-kwoi′) and the Algonquins (Al-gŏn′kins), and also many smaller tribes.

Although the whites found many scattered groups of Indians wherever they went, the total number was not very great. In the whole country there were not as many human beings, in 1600, as now live in the city of Detroit. The reason for this was that the Red Men, for the most part, lived by hunting and not by agriculture. The farms of North Dakota or of southern Ohio now yield enough wheat or corn to feed a million people or more, but then it took a great many acres of uncultivated land to support the wild animals necessary for the food of a single Indian family. Moreover, these animals were often difficult to find and to kill, and sometimes days and days passed without coming upon a single wild beast, so that many of the old men and women, the children, and the weaker members of an Indian family died of starvation. Many of these tribes grew a little Indian corn and a few squashes, but their tools were so rude that it was impossible for them to cultivate any large space of ground. Even in the Southwest the people of the pueblos, who lived for generations in one town, did not raise more food than was necessary for their everyday needs. The whites brought scarlet fever, the measles, and other new diseases to the Indians, and took away their lands and killed them when

Iron Camp Kettle. (Cast at Lynn, Mass.)

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they resisted; but they also brought many benefits to the Red Men. For one thing, they provided the natives with iron pots in which they could boil their food over a fire instead of doing this, as they formerly had done, by dropping red-hot stones into an earthen pot filled with water. In place of the simple stone axe they gave them iron axes and hatchets which made it far easier to cut down the trees of the forest and clear a space for a corn-field. They also gave them fire-arms and gunpowder with which they could more readily kill the wild animals. So the coming of the whites was not altogether an injury to the natives.

32. **The League of the Iroquois.** — The strongest Indian power in North America was the League of the Iroquois or the Five Nations. These were the Senecas (Sĕn′ẹ̣-kạ̣z), Cayugas (Kȧ̆-yū′gȧs), Onondagas (On′ŏn-dạ′ḡạ̣z), Oneidas (O-nī′dạ̣z), and Mohawks, the last named being the easternmost nation. These tribes lived in the Mohawk Valley, their villages extending from the shores of Lake Erie to the Hudson River. They were of one blood, but had become separated. The story is that after their separation a chieftain named Hiawatha by his advice had united them into a federation or league. Whether this story is only a legend or has some basis in fact, it is certain that at the coming of the whites the Five Nations formed one Indian organization. Each tribe had its own government, but sent ten chiefs to the Grand Council of the confederation. At the meetings of this body, matters were debated with great solemnity and care, and the decisions, when once reached, were obeyed without question. The Iroquois lived in long houses built of bark, each house containing several families, each family having its own fire. The strip of country in which they lived was shaped like one of their dwellings, and was called by them the Long House. From one end to the other, there stretched the peace-path,

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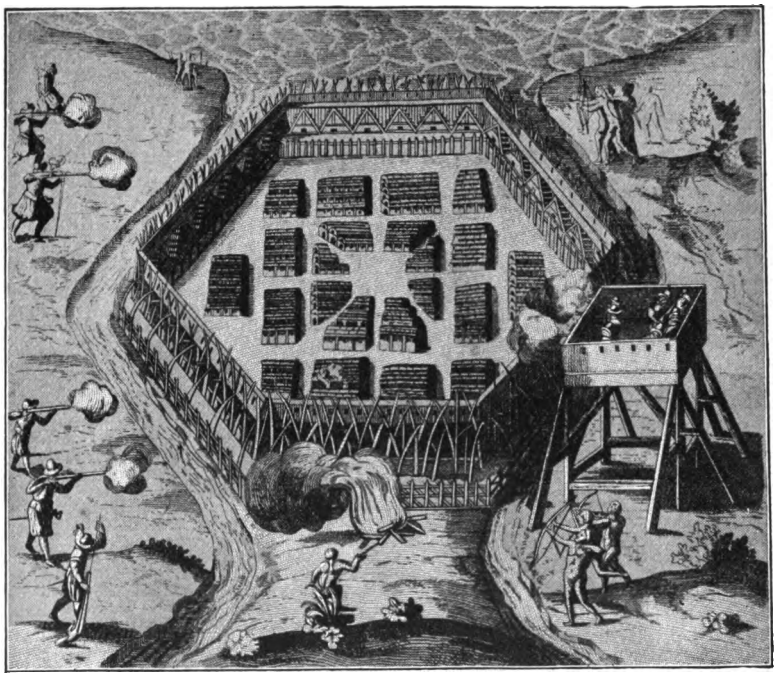
three hundred miles long. It took three days and three runners, each doing his hundred miles in twenty-four hours, to carry a message from the easternmost town or castle of the Mohawks to the westernmost one of the Senecas.



An Iroquois Fortified Village.

Each tribe was divided into families, each family having its sign, or totem, — the bear, the beaver, and so on. Whenever a young man wished to marry, it was necessary for him to find a wife from a family of a different totem.

33. **Importance of the Iroquois.** — The Iroquois castles were strongly fortified with palisades of tree trunks, sometimes thirty feet high, which were stood on end in the

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earth. Sometimes rows of these supported a gallery upon which were placed vessels of water for putting out fires that an attacking force might light, and also stones which could be dropped upon the heads of any enemies who might be so hardy as to approach them. It must not be thought that the Iroquois were content to stay in their castles, awaiting attack. On the contrary, they were the fiercest and most ferocious of all Indian tribes. Their war parties spread far and wide, north of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes; east of the Hudson and westward to the Mississippi. It was a fortunate thing for the English colonists that these savage Iroquois hated the Frenchmen who settled in the St. Lawrence Valley, and were friendly with the Dutch and English colonists of New York and New England.

34. **Summary.** — America was everywhere inhabited by Red Men whom Columbus called Indians. Their origin is unknown, but they may be descendants of the Mound-builders. Some were almost civilized, but others were mere savages. The League of the Iroquois was the strongest Indian power within the limits of the United States. The good relations which existed between these Indians and the Dutch and the English settlers in the Hudson River Valley were of the greatest importance in our history (see § 76).

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- **Discovery and Exploration, 1000–1606**
  - THE GREAT DISCOVERERS
    - *Leif Ericsson's Discovery.*
    - *Marco Polo.*
    - *New Routes to India.*
    - *Ideas about the Earth's Shape.*
    - *Christopher Columbus*
      - Early Life.
      - Ideas about the Shape of the Earth.
      - First Voyage — finds America.
      - Other Voyages.
    - *Americus Vespucius* — Naming of America.
    - *Balboa* — The Pacific.
    - *Magellan*
      - One of his Ships sails around the World.
  - SPANIARDS IN THE UNITED STATES
    - *De Leon* — Florida.
    - *De Soto*
      - In the Southeast.
      - Crosses the Mississippi River.
    - *Coronado*
      - The Seven Cities.
      - The Pueblos.
      - In Kansas.
  - ENGLISH EXPLORERS
    - *John Cabot*
      - Finds North America for England.
    - *Sir Francis Drake*
      - Sails round the World.
    - *Raleigh*
      - Sends Expeditions to Virginia.
    - *England defeats the Spanish Armada.*
  - FRENCH EXPLORERS
    - *Verrazano*
      - Explores the Atlantic Coast.
    - *Cartier*
      - Sails up the St. Lawrence.
    - *French in Florida*
      - Driven off by Spaniards.
    - *Champlain*
      - Acadia.
      - New France.
  - NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS
    - *Origin of the Indians.*
    - *Divisions of the Indian Race*
      - Pueblos.
      - Cherokees.
      - Iroquois.
    - *Life of the Indians.*
    - *League of the Iroquois.*
    - *Importance of the Iroquois.*

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II

PLANTING OF A NATION IN THE NEW WORLD, 1607–1660

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND

35. **The reason for settling Virginia.** — For a century and more, navigators had been seeking a direct passage to Asia through America, and no one had found it. The English East India Company was especially eager to find such a route to the Far East, because their ships, sailing to India around the Cape of Good Hope, were constantly attacked by Portuguese and Spanish men-of-war, and the route through Magellan Strait was also dangerous on account of the Spanish settlements on the west coast of South and Central America and in the Philippines. The Indians near Chesapeake Bay told the explorers, whom Raleigh had sent over, that only three marches from the Atlantic there was a "great water" whose waves sometimes washed into the heads of the rivers that flowed into the Chesapeake. The surrounding region was also reported to be rich in many natural products, and gold was certain to be found there. Of course, it was difficult for the white explorers to understand precisely what the Indians meant by the "great water"; but there was enough in these reports to induce the directors of the East India Company to send out an expedition to search for the strait leading to the Pacific Ocean, China, and India, and to seize and fortify a position at its entrance. The explorers and occupants of the fort could employ their spare time in search-

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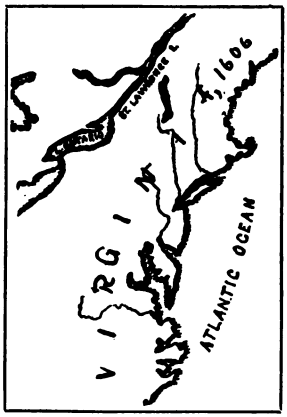
ing for gold and other rare and valuable things. Besides those interested in the East India Company, there were also many powerful men in England who wished to plant a colony in America. They all joined together to get a charter from King James, giving them the right to settle on lands claimed by him in North America and to govern the people who came here. The king used the name Virginia for this territory, which extended from Halifax nearly to the northern boundary of South Carolina.



There were three Virginia charters, 1606, 1609, and 1612. The last two charters gave those interested in Virginia more powers of government than they at first had, but restricted the limits of the colony to two hundred miles north and south of the entrance of the Chesapeake. Those who were interested in the northern part of Virginia got a separate charter, in 1620, giving them the land north of Philadelphia under the name of New England.

36. **Virginia Pioneers.** — Ever since the coming of the Spanish Armada to England in 1588, there had been constant war with Spain in which the English seamen had become rich from the spoils of Spanish towns and Spanish ships. King James put an end to this fighting and plundering by making a treaty with Spain, to which the king of that country was very glad to agree. This peace set free hundreds and thousands of seamen and soldiers, who soon tired of the humdrum life of England and longed for new adventures. Among them were men like George Percy, brother of the Duke of Northumberland, Captain

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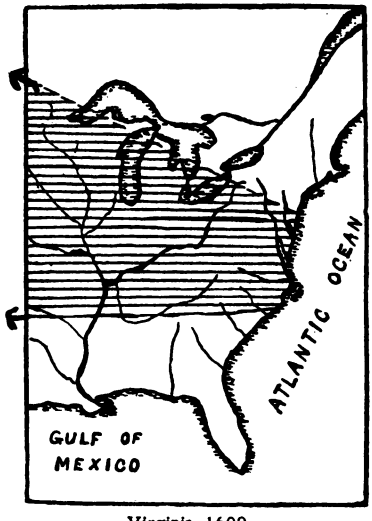
John Smith, and many others who served as officers and leaders in the Virginia expedition and other dangerous enterprises.[1] Nor was there any lack of working men because the conditions of life in England had been changing so greatly within the last fifty years that hundreds of thousands of worthy men and women had been thrown out of employment and forced to beg for food.



Virginia, 1609.

37. The voyage to Virginia. — In December, 1606, three vessels left London bound for Virginia and the hoped-for strait, or passage to the Pacific. The commander of the fleet was Sir Christopher Newport, one of the trusted captains of the East India Company. He first sailed southward to the Canary Islands and then stretched across the Atlantic a little to the southward of Christopher Columbus's route on his first voyage. The first land of the New World to greet the voyagers' watching eyes was the island of Dominica (Dŏm′ẹ-nē′kạ) in the West Indies, some three hundred and fifty miles southeast of Porto Rico. From this island they sailed slowly northward, going ashore at the first good opportunity to refresh themselves and to wash their clothing. In May, 1607,

[1] Many Englishmen whose names are closely connected with American history served in English regiments in the service of the Dutch on the continent of Europe. Among these were Sir Thomas Gates, Sir Thomas Dale, and Sir George Yeardley, who were governors of Virginia, and Captain Miles Standish, the Pilgrim military leader.

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they reached the capes[1] of the Chesapeake, their destination. For months they had been in the cramped quarters of the little vessels, in the heat of the tropics, and lacking proper food. There were one hundred and twenty of them when they left the Thames, but only one hundred and four

Jamestown in 1622.
From a contemporary Dutch print.

were alive when they anchored in Chesapeake Bay. At once the chief men landed. They admired greatly the trees and plants of Virginia. Before long, however, the natives spied them and, creeping on all fours like bears, with their bows in their mouths, attacked them, wounded Captain Gabriel Archer and one of the seamen, and compelled the intruders to make a rapid return to their vessels.

38. **Jamestown, 1607.** — Sailing up the principal river of the Lower Chesapeake, they named it the James, in honor of their English king. About fifty miles from its mouth the explorers selected a spot for their post, and rapidly constructed a rude fortification.[2] Hardly had Cap-

[1] These capes were named Charles and Henry for the two princes — the sons of James I.

[2] Percy and Smith in their accounts of the expedition call their settlement James Fort; later it was named James City, and then Jamestown. Where its

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tain Newport started on his return voyage, when malarial fevers attacked the explorers whom he had left, and the little stock of food brought from England became exhausted. The most energetic and adventurous spirit among them was Captain John Smith. He headed their exploring parties to find the waterway to the Pacific and to China, to look for gold mines, and to get food from the Indians. On one of these expeditions he was captured by the Indians after losing several of his men.[1] He went back to England with the fleet in 1609 and never returned to the Chesapeake.

39. **The colony of Virginia.** — When it became certain that there was no strait leading from Chesapeake Bay to the Pacific Ocean and not much probability of gold being found in Virginia, the East India Company lost interest in the enterprise. Patriotic people in England then came forward and determined to found a colony on the James River. They raised money, they secured recruits, and sent them over in ever increasing numbers in 1609 and later years. All these efforts might have failed had not means been discovered to prepare Virginia tobacco so that it could be taken across the Atlantic without spoiling, and sold in England for much more than it cost to raise it in Virginia.[2] Planting tobacco now went on vigorously in

houses once stood there was in 1897 a great corn-field. The tower of the church which was built in the latter part of the sixteenth century is all that is left of this oldest English town in North America.

[1] A dozen years later Captain John Smith printed a very interesting and important *Generall Historie of Virginia*. It is in this book that he tells how, when an Indian was about to kill him with a stone club, the Princess Pocahontas (Po-ka-hŏn'tas), daughter of the Emperor Powhatan (Pow-ha-tăn'), rushed forward and begged his life.

[2] Columbus found the natives smoking what they called "tabac" in Cuba, and tobacco was smoked in Spain within twenty-five years after the discovery of America. One of the most famous Englishmen to set the fashion of tobacco smoking was Sir Walter Raleigh. There is a story that the smoke rising from his master's pipe so alarmed one of Raleigh's men that he seized a bucket of

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Virginia. The settlers seized the Indian corn-fields and every other bit of ground from which the trees had been cleared. The Indians resented this conduct. They attacked the whites suddenly and with great fury, and killed several hundred of them. Fever and starvation killed thousands where the Indians killed hundreds, so that the early years of Virginia's history are full of suffering and death. At one time the people were so discouraged that they resolved to abandon the settlement and return to England. They were actually sailing down the James River when they were met by Lord Delaware[1] and induced to return. The first wedding in the colony was at Jamestown[2] in 1608. Ten years later the authorities in England sent over young women to marry the settlers and thus make homes in the colony on a larger scale. Each husband gladly bore the cost of sending his wife over, and paid the passage money in tobacco because they had no money, and this marriage arrangement proved agreeable to all concerned.

40. **Negro slavery, 1619.** — In a new country, human labor is always very scarce and difficult to obtain. In the West Indies the Spaniards had enslaved the Indians, who were not accustomed to laboring, and speedily perished. Their places were taken by negro slaves who were brought from the coast of Africa. One of the vessels carrying these slaves was captured by an English ship, and twenty-four of the negroes found on board of her were taken to Jamestown and there sold to the settlers.

water and emptied it over Raleigh's head, thinking that he was on fire. The habit of smoking spread rapidly until the demand for tobacco became so great that a man would give a good horse for a dozen or twenty pounds of it.

[1] His name was really Lord De la Warr, but we generally use its American form of Delaware.

[2] In 1616, of the three hundred and fifty-one white persons in Virginia, sixty-five were women and children.

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This was in the year 1619 and marked the beginning of negro slavery in Virginia.

41. **White servants.** — The number of negro slaves employed in Virginia increased very slowly, because the planters preferred to employ white men and women who agreed to serve for a limited number of years or, in some cases, for life. Some of these were poor persons who adopted this means in order to get the money to pay for their passage to America. Others were persons who had been shut up in prison in England because they had been convicted of stealing, or for some other offence against the law. Some of these servants, as they were called, were boys and girls who had been stolen by heartless people and sold to the ship captain for service in America. Even with the black slaves and the white servants,[1] labor was so scarce in Virginia, and the opportunity for running away was so great, that the masters were obliged to be kind to their working people, and the lawmakers felt it necessary to make very harsh laws against runaways.

42. **The beginnings of local self-government.** — Unlike all earlier colonists in the world's history, the Virginians were permitted to make their own laws and to manage their own concerns, with very little oversight from England. In 1619, the first meeting of representatives took place in the church at Jamestown. These representatives had been chosen by the people in the different parts of the colony. They at once proceeded to repeal many harsh laws that had been sent over from England for their government and to make much milder ones. They also tried to reform some abuses which had grown up. Especially, they tried to compel the planters to grow enough food for themselves and their working people, and not devote their

[1] The word "servant," as used in colonial days, applied mainly to those who labored in the fields.

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whole time to the raising of tobacco. The assembly that met at Jamestown in 1619 served as a model for later assemblies, state legislatures, and the Congress of the United States.

In 1624, King James took away the Virginia Charter, but neither he nor his son Charles I, who became king in 1625, made any changes in the form of government in Virginia. Almost the only difference was that, after Virginia became a royal province, the governor was appointed by the king instead of by the Virginia Company.

43. **Maryland.** — When the king took away the Virginia Charter, he regained possession of all the land in the colony that had not already been granted to private persons. Within a few years he gave that part of Virginia which lay north of the Potomac to Lord Baltimore,[1] with the right to govern the colonists who should go over there. Lord Baltimore was a Catholic. His desire was to found a colony to which English Catholics might go and be governed by one of their own faith. The English Jesuits were also interested in the plan, because, if it were carried out, they would have an opportunity to convert the Indians to Christianity, as the French Jesuits were beginning to do in New France. Baltimore was also anxious to found a great estate in America for himself and his children. It turned out that no very great number of English Catholics wished to emigrate to the New World, so that in Maryland the Protestants were always more numerous than the Catholics. Most of the leading men, however, were Catholics in the early days, but the Protestants were permitted to have their own religious services. The colony was called Maryland, in honor of the queen of Charles I; but

[1] The Virginians did not like this granting away of what they thought was part of their colony. The secretary of Virginia, William Claiborne, was particularly opposed to it. He had established a trading station on an island in the northern part of Chesapeake Bay, which was within the limits of the new

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the first settlement was named St. Mary's, for the Virgin. The date of the Maryland Charter was 1632. The first settlers left England in the next year, 1633.

44. **Maryland industries.** — The Marylanders, like the Virginians, planted tobacco for the English market, and traded with the Indians for furs. As the years went by, the more northerly parts of the colony began to be settled. These were less suited to the cultivation of tobacco, and were well fitted for the production of wheat and corn.[1] When Pennsylvania was settled to the north of Maryland, the trade of the Susquehanna (Sŭs'kwe-hăn'a) Valley came down to the Chesapeake. In 1729, nearly a century after the founding of Maryland, the town of Baltimore was established. It speedily grew into a busy commercial city.

45. **Summary.** — An exploring party was sent to Virginia, and built a fort on the James River in 1607. Other Englishmen came over, and the settlement grew into the colony of Virginia. The first settlers suffered terribly from sickness and hunger, and many were killed by the Indians. In time the profits gained from tobacco culture made Virginia prosperous. In 1619, the first assembly met at Jamestown. In the same year the first negro slaves were brought to Virginia. Great numbers of white servants were employed in the fields. In 1624, the king took away the charter and appointed the governor. He gave a part of Virginia to Lord Baltimore, who founded the colony of Maryland (1633).

colony. Instead of making terms with him and paying him for his houses and other improvements, Lord Baltimore's brother, who acted as governor in Maryland, proclaimed Claiborne a rebel and a traitor, arrested one of his agents and hanged him as a pirate.

[1] Indian corn, or corn, as we generally call it, is a native American food plant. It thrives in newly cleared fields, does not mind the hot sun and droughts of our summers, and yields a great increase. Had it not been for this easily grown nutritious food, the settling of the colonies would have been almost impossible.

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NEW ENGLAND

46. Captain John Smith names New England. — Captain John Smith, who had achieved so much fame in Virginia, in 1614, visited the shores of what are now the states of Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts. Returning to England, he made a map on which were placed many of the names that are to-day so familiar. Indeed, he was the first to call the land New England. Cape Elizabeth and Cape Ann, were named for the king's daughters; the Charles River was named for the king's son, who afterwards himself became ruler. Plymouth was called for the well-known seaport in England. Smith admired the country greatly, and it was partly on his advice that some gentlemen living in Plymouth, England, in 1620, obtained the charter of New England.[1]

47. The beginnings of New England. — The first permanent settlement to be made by the English north of Maryland was that of the Pilgrims[2] at Plymouth. These Pilgrims were Protestant reformers, and were called Separatists, because they wished to separate from the state church in England. They were persecuted by the government as much as were the Catholics. They went first to Holland, where the Dutch sheltered them. In 1620, some of them determined to make another removal. Their intention was to settle within the limits of Virginia. They

[1] This land was really a part of the first great Virginia grant. New England, as it is to-day, is only a small part of what was first called New England. The boundaries were constantly being changed, just as, later, the Northwest Territory (§ 207) was divided into five states.

[2] The word "Pilgrim" means wanderer. We call them pilgrims because some of them made two pilgrimages — first to Holland, and then to America. Like the settlers at Boston and Salem, they were Puritans, but were not of precisely the same way of religious thinking as the settlers of Boston.

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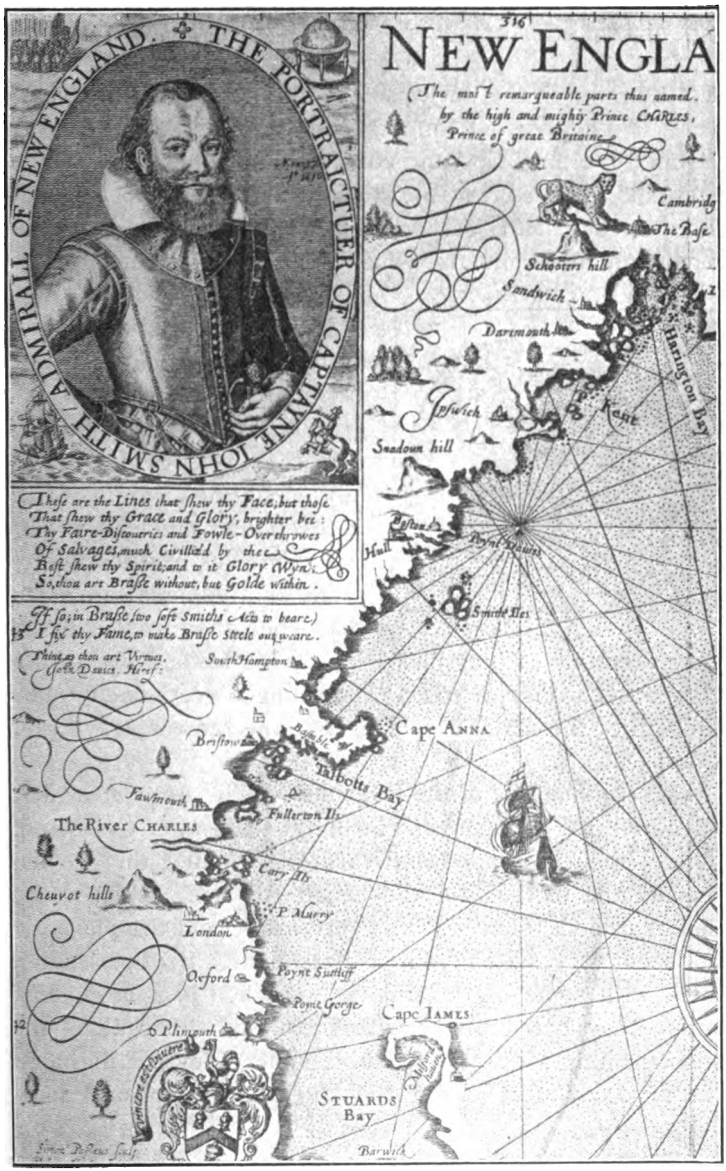

Capt. John Smith's Map of New England.

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left England in the *Mayflower* in the summer of the same year. They sailed directly across the Atlantic, and reached the New England coast in November, 1620, when the cold and stormy northern winter was not far off.[1] They tried to sail southward to Virginia, but were driven back, and determined to make their settlement in New England.

48. The Mayflower Compact, 1620. — The Virginia Company had given the Pilgrim leaders power to govern their colonists. As they were now outside of Virginia, it was necessary to make other arrangements, especially as some of the emigrants said that when they got on shore they would do as they pleased. So the leaders drew up a compact (November, 1620) which obliged every one to obey the will of the majority. This was the famous Mayflower Compact.

49. The Landing of the Pilgrims. — The *Mayflower* first anchored in Provincetown Harbor at the end of Cape Cod. There the Pilgrims went ashore. While the women washed the clothes on the beach, the men explored the neighborhood. The soil was very sandy and the place did not seem very suitable for a settlement. So the leading men, with some of the sailors, embarked in a large boat which they had brought with them, and sailed along the shore looking for a more suitable spot. Toward night on the third day after leaving the *Mayflower*, a storm of snow

[1] Newport's flagship was named the *Susan Constant*; the two vessels that carried the first band of settlers to Maryland were the *Ark* and the *Dove*. These with Henry Hudson's ship, the *Half-Moon*, and the *Mayflower*, are the most famous vessels in our colonial history.

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and wind burst upon them. Fortunately, one of the sailors who had been on the coast a few years before with Captain John Smith knew the way into a near-by harbor. On Monday, December 21, 1620, they explored the shores of the harbor,[1] found what seemed to be a good place for settlement, and then sailed directly back across Massachusetts Bay to the *Mayflower*, which was still lying safely at anchor in Provincetown Harbor.

50. **Death and starvation at Plymouth.** — In a few days the *Mayflower* sailed across the bay and anchored in Plymouth Harbor. Working parties at once went ashore and began to build log-cabins for the settlers. Before they had gone far in this work, sickness broke out among those on the ship and those on the shore. This was caused by the hardship of their long voyage, the poor food, the cold, and the storms of rain and snow. As one cabin after another was finished, those who were able removed to the shore, but it was March, 1621, before the last passengers left the *ship*. In that dreadful time, nearly one-half of the settlers died. Of the eighteen wives and mothers who had graced the *Mayflower's* decks when she swept into Provincetown Harbor, only four were living when she sailed from Plymouth for England in April, 1621.

51. **How the Pilgrims lived.** — The survivors of this terrible winter found it no easy matter to keep alive for the next few years. The woods surrounding the settlement abounded in game, and the seas off the shores teemed with fish. Fishing and hunting were quite unknown to the Pilgrims, for they belonged to the English middle class whose members were not then permitted to hunt or to

[1] It was while on this exploring trip that the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth rock, so the local tradition says. But it must be remembered that the *Mayflower* with the women and children and most of the men was still in Provincetown Harbor.

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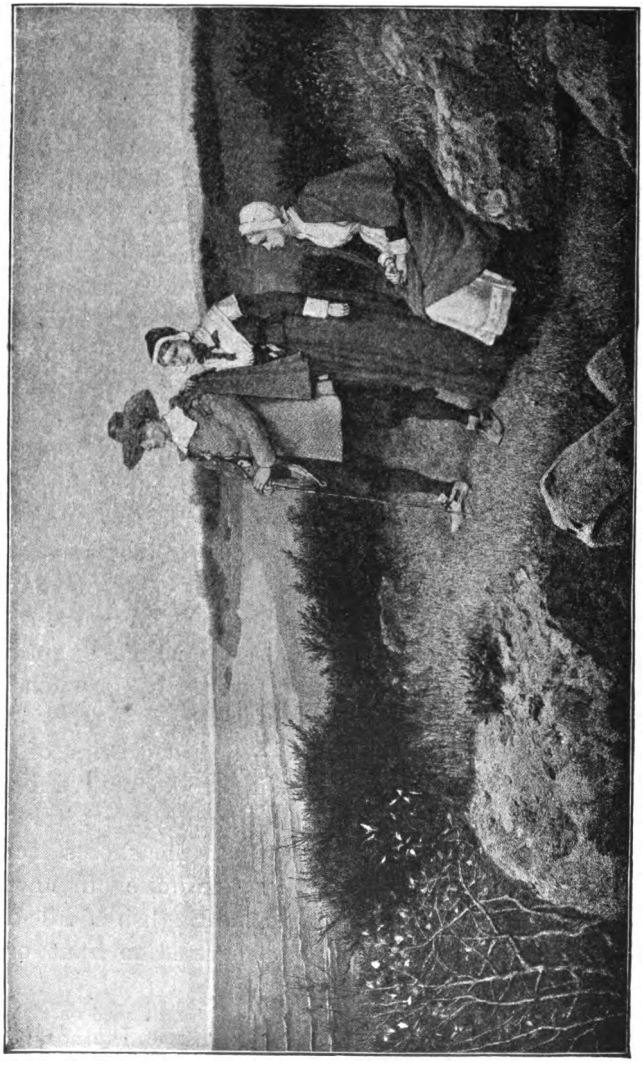

As the *Mayflower* sailed away from Plymouth.

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fish; these pursuits being reserved for the nobility and great landowners.

Fortunately, in the springtime, an Indian, Samoset, who could speak English appeared at the settlement, and later brought another Indian named Tisquantum. The latter was the sole survivor of the tribe that had once lived at Plymouth, for he had been captured by a slave-trader and taken to England, and thus had escaped dying of the measles or of smallpox, as the rest of his tribesmen had done. He was kind to the Pilgrims, taught them how to catch fish, how to tread the eels out of the mud with their bare feet, how to dig clams on the beach, and how to plant corn in the deserted fields.

52. **Progress of the New Plymouth Colony.**[1] — For fifty years, the Pilgrims had no serious trouble with the Indians. This was partly because they were on good terms with Massasoit, chief of the nearest strong Indian tribe, who felt very grateful to the Plymouth people because one of their number had nursed him back to life when he seemed to be dying.[2] It was also owing to the valor, vigor, and good judgment of Miles Standish, their military leader. This soldier not only protected the Pilgrims from Indian attacks, but actually rescued a neighboring settlement of white men from the Indians of that region who had been greatly offended by the thieving of these settlers.

53. **The settlement of Massachusetts.** — Salem, Boston, and other towns in the Massachusetts Bay Colony were founded by English religious reformers who wished to establish in the New World a religious state in which life and government should be modelled on the laws laid down in

[1] Plymouth was the name given to the principal settlement; the colony was called New Plymouth, and included other towns in the neighborhood. In 1686, the king added New Plymouth Colony to Massachusetts (Măs'a̭-chū'sḙts).

[2] For an account of this incident, see Channing's *First Lessons*, p. 49.

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the Bible.[1] The chief man of this new settlement was John Winthrop. He and many of his partners in the enterprise were men of means and standing in their towns and villages. They got a grant of land from King Charles which they called Massachusetts from the Indian name of the country to the south of Boston Harbor. They collected a fleet of eleven ships and founded the town of Boston and neighboring towns[2] in the summer and autumn of 1630. In 1634, there were already four thousand colonists in Massachusetts, and, in 1643, this number had increased to sixteen thousand, so that Massachusetts then contained more white people than all the other North American colonies put together.

54. Religious troubles. — The project of founding a Bible state proved to be very attractive to a great many persons in England. The trouble was that they were not all of one mind as to what was the best kind of Bible state to found. Winthrop and his followers believed that in such a state, every one should think alike on religious

[1] The word "Puritan" is properly applied to all English Protestants who wanted a purer or simpler form of religion at the time of the English colonial settlement in America. The word was used at the time as a nickname.

[2] The Massachusetts people had already established a settlement at Salem to the north of Boston; but the Great Emigration of 1630 was so unlike any other colony founding that we may well date the beginning of Massachusetts from that time.

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subjects, or, if they differed, that they should say nothing in opposition to what the government thought was best. They held that every one ought to go to church on Sunday and go to the church that was provided by the government. This was the rule in England and in Virginia; the only difference in Massachusetts was that the kind of church was not just like that of either England or Virginia.

55. **Roger Williams and Mrs. Hutchinson.** — Among those who differed from Winthrop and the government were Roger Williams, a brilliant young Puritan minister, and Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, a gifted woman. Williams thought that the authorities ought not to compel people to attend a particular church or, indeed, to go to any church at all, if they wanted to stay at home. He also declared that the king of England had no right to American land, because it belonged to the Indians. This last idea, had it been maintained, would have destroyed all the rights which Massachusetts, Virginia, and Maryland held under the English crown. Mrs. Hutchinson thought that God had revealed himself to her in visions, and these revelations were unlike the teachings of most of the ministers. Roger Williams and Mrs. Hutchinson obtained so many converts to their views and became so strong that the authorities felt obliged to interfere. Williams was expelled from the colony, and, a year or so later, Mrs. Hutchinson and many of her followers were also sent away.

56. **Northern New England.** — Settlements had been made on the coast of Maine, especially on the islands, and the town of Portsmouth, New Hampshire, had been founded before Salem and Boston. When the religious troubles became acute in Massachusetts, other settlers went to these colonies. The eastern settlements were called Maine. Those about Portsmouth and in the Merrimac Valley were named New Hampshire. At a little later time, Massachu-

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setts governed both New Hampshire and Maine[1] and in 1677 bought the latter province of its owners.

57. **Rhode Island.** — Roger Williams and Mrs. Hutchinson, when they were banished from Massachusetts, went southward with their followers. Williams settled the town of Providence, 1636. Two years later (1638), Mrs. Hutchinson and her friends settled on the island of Rhode Island. Other settlements were made near by, and these all combined to form the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. In 1663, the colonists of this region obtained a charter from Charles II and governed themselves as a separate colony until the American Revolution. From the beginning, Providence was perfectly free, religiously, exactly as the United States is to-day. Roger Williams, therefore, is

[1] New Hampshire and Maine were proprietary provinces like Maryland; that is to say, they were owned by one person known as proprietor, and not by a company or group of persons. The owner of New Hampshire was Captain John Mason; of Maine, Sir Ferdinando Gorges (Gôr′jĕz). New Hampshire was taken away from Massachusetts by Charles II and governed as a royal province. Maine remained a part of Massachusetts until 1820, when it became a separate state.

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justly regarded as the beginner of one of our most important principles of government.

58. Connecticut and New Haven. — Connecticut was founded by other emigrants from Massachusetts. They

The Journey to Connecticut.

were not turned out of the older colony, but left it because they did not like the way that things were going on there and also because they expected to find better farming lands in the Connecticut Valley than those of the gravelly hills near Boston. The leader of this migration was Thomas Hooker, the first minister of the town of Cambridge. They went overland through the forests, driving their cattle before them. They settled Hartford and neighboring towns, 1635–36. Another settlement was made on the shore of Long Island Sound to the westward of the mouth of the Connecticut River by a band of colonists who came out from Eng-

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land and declined to settle in Massachusetts, although the people there would have been very glad to have them do so. They called their town New Haven, because they expected it to become a great commercial port. In 1662, the Connecticut people got a charter from Charles II giving them the right to govern themselves. When this document came to America, it was found that New Haven was included within the boundaries of Connecticut. The people of New Haven would have preferred to continue as a separate colony; but after a few years they joined the settlers of the larger colony of Connecticut, partly, perhaps, because they preferred doing that to being annexed to New York.

59. **Summary.** — Captain John Smith made a map of the New England coast, giving each point a name. The first permanent settlers of New England were the Pilgrims. They came to Plymouth in the *Mayflower* in 1620. They suffered greatly from sickness and hunger, but made good their foothold on the land. John Winthrop led the Great Emigration of English Puritans to Boston in 1630, and founded Massachusetts. That colony became very prosperous. Other New England colonies were Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, and Connecticut, including New Haven. Some were settled by persons who were expelled from Massachusetts, others by those who did not like that colony or wished to live independently.

NEW NETHERLAND

60. **Henry Hudson and his discoveries.** — The Dutch, or the people who lived in Holland, were the most enterprising seamen and traders of the first part of the seventeenth century. The Dutch East India Company had been founded before the English East India Company, and had been very prosperous. Like their English rivals, the

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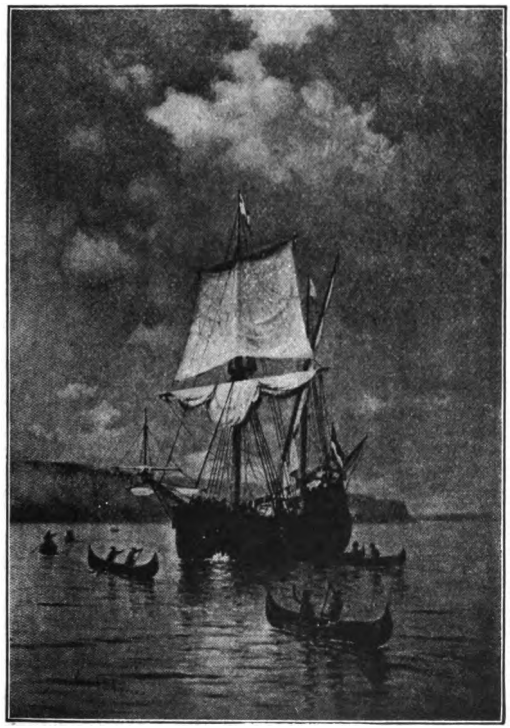
Dutch wished to find a sea route to India through North America. In 1609, some of the leading men interested in this company employed Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to discover this long-looked-for passage. They selected



The "Half-Moon" in the Hudson River.

him partly, perhaps, because he was a friend of Captain John Smith's and might have learned something from him as to the whereabouts of the strait. Henry Hudson sailed from Holland in the ship *Half-Moon*. At first he steered northwardly, hoping to reach India by the Arctic seas, but his progress being stopped by ice, he turned southwest-

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wardly and reached North America off the coast of Maine. He then continued his southern course, until he came to the vicinity of Delaware Bay. There he turned northward and soon entered the lower New York Harbor which Verrazano had visited many years before (§ 25). Instead of being content with the exploration of the harbor, he steered the *Half-Moon* northward into the river that still bears his name (1609).[1] Proceeding up this stream, he felt sure that he had found the strait that so many men had looked for in vain. The tide ebbed and flowed as it would in a regular strait, and any moment the *Half-Moon* might sail around a great cliff and out into the Pacific! As it happened, however, the tide ceased to ebb and flow, the water became fresh and too shallow for the *Half-Moon* to go any farther. The strait was only a river after all. Hudson was disappointed, but at all events the "Great River of the Mountains" which he had explored was a noble stream. He never went back to Holland because, putting into an English port with the *Half-Moon*, he was detained by the authorities, although the ship was allowed to proceed without him. The next year, 1610, some English merchants sent him to look for the strait farther north. He entered Hudson Strait, sailed around Hudson Bay, and then his men set him adrift in a small boat, because he refused to return to England before his search was done — and he was never heard from again.

[1] The New Netherlanders always called it the North River. After the English conquest of New Netherland it came to be known as the Hudson.

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61. **The founding of New Netherland.** — For some years after the return of the *Half-Moon*, Dutch merchants took slight interest in the Great River of the Mountains, but slowly fur-traders began to gather at Manhattan Island at the mouth of the Hudson. One of these fur-traders, Adriaen Block by name, built a little vessel at the settlement and set forth on an exploring trip to the eastward. He sailed as far as Boston Harbor, and Block Island, off Narragansett Bay, still retains his name. As the years went by, the fur trade of the Hudson River became more and more valuable, and more and more Dutch merchants became interested in it. Finally, about 1621, they determined to found a colony in that region, whose inhabitants would be more permanent than the shifting population of the trading stations. The name of the colony was New Netherland. The name of the Dutchman's home country was the United Provinces of the Netherlands, so that this name of New Netherland[1] was for that of the mother land as were those of New England and New France.

62. **Progress of New Netherland.** — One of the means adopted by the Dutch rulers of New Netherland to attract settlers was to give great tracts of land to the first rich men who would send over bands of settlers. The most famous of these great proprietors, or patroons, was Van Rensselaer (Văn Ren′sẹ-lẹr), a diamond merchant of Amsterdam and a director in the West India Company. His agents took possession of the land around the trading post at Albany. The company had reserved Manhattan Island for itself or Van Rensselaer would probably have seized upon that.

[1] Netherlands means low lands or countries. Holland and the other United Provinces are, therefore, often referred to as the Low Countries. New Netherland was a part of the enterprises undertaken by the Dutch West India Company, which was established in 1621, to gather riches from the Atlantic lands as the Dutch East India Company was gaining them from the countries of the Indian Ocean.

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Settlements were made, not only on Manhattan Island and at Albany, but also on the western end of Long Island, on Staten Island, and on the mainland opposite Manhattan. To the town on the southern end of that island they gave the name of New Amsterdam.

63. **Governor Peter Stuyvesant.** — The most famous governor of New Netherland and the one to hold that post for the longest time was Peter Stuyvesant (Stī′vẹ-sạnt). He was a soldier who had served in the West Indies in the employ of the West India Company and was transferred to New Netherland, perhaps, because he had lost a leg in the company's service and might do very well as a governor, although not as a soldier. Coming to New Amsterdam, he found affairs in a very critical condition. The traders there and the other inhabitants were paying very little attention to any of the laws or regulations of the company. Stuyvesant went at the task of reformation so vigorously that he soon brought about order in the town, but his regulations interfered with the commerce of the place. Meantime, English settlers had come over to the eastern end of Long Island and had founded towns there. Then, too, many of the colonists, who left New England for one reason or another, came to New Amsterdam and to other Dutch towns. The English disliked seeing this Dutch settlement grow up between Virginia and New England. In time,

Peter Stuyvesant.

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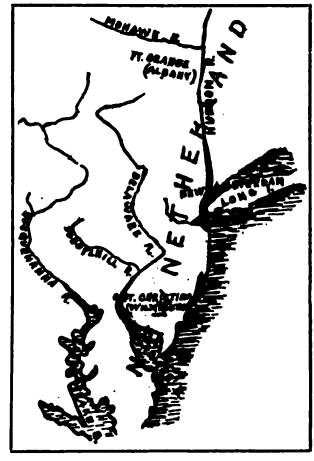
when the English and the Dutch came to blows in Europe, Oliver Cromwell sent an expedition out to conquer New Netherland. The fleet was on the point of sailing from Boston, where it had stopped for reënforcements, when news arrived of the signing of peace between England and Holland, — and New Netherland was safe for a time.



64. New Sweden. — To the south of New Amsterdam, a new set of colonists had come in. These were the Swedes who founded some settlements on the southern and western side of Delaware Bay calling their colony New Sweden. For a time, Stuyvesant, viewed the growth of this new settlement with alarm, and as soon as he could, he led an expedition from Manhattan Island to the Delaware and conquered the Swedish settlers.

65. Summary. — Henry Hudson discovered the Hudson River for Dutch merchants. Dutch fur-traders made their headquarters at Manhattan Island, and slowly a colony developed. Its name was New Netherland. Its most important governor was Peter Stuyvesant. Swedish colonists settled New Sweden on Delaware Bay, but they were conquered by the Dutch and their colony added to New Netherland.

THE COLONISTS IN 1660

66. Numbers and settlements. — In 1660, the English and Dutch colonies together contained in all between eighty and ninety thousand inhabitants, or about as many as now

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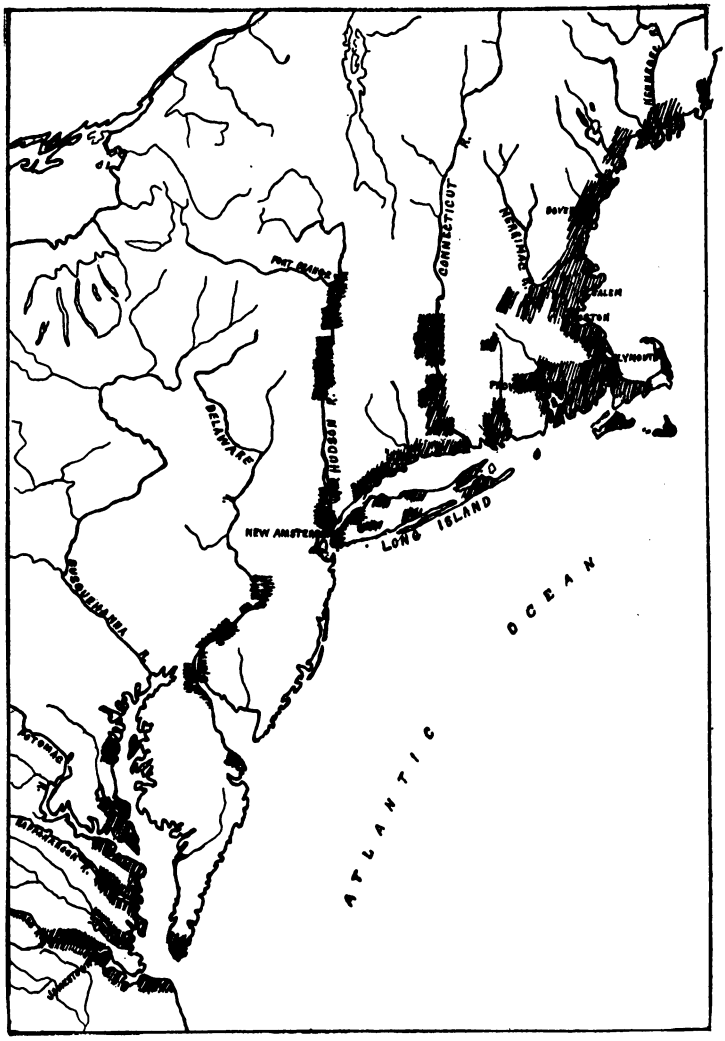

Extent of Settlement, 1660. (The settled area is shaded.)

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live in the city of Trenton, New Jersey. These were scattered in settlements along the seacoast, from the Kennebec River in Maine to the river James in Virginia. Of these only about seven thousand lived in New Netherland including the settlements on the Delaware. Apart from the Dutch, the great mass of the colonists were Englishmen or the children of those who had come from England. There were a few French Protestants and a few immigrants from Scotland and Ireland. There were negro slaves, not only in the colonies on the Chesapeake, but also in New Netherland and in New England. The negroes were so few in number in 1660 that they had not yet begun to influence the lives of even the Virginia planters, where they were most numerous. In New England, settlements were made near together and the people lived in towns. In New Netherland, there were several towns, but there were also large farms or plantations. In Virginia and Maryland, plantations were the rule, there being very few towns.

67. **Government.** — There were many differences between the people of the several sections, but in some ways their governments were quite similar. In every one there was a governor; in Virginia he was appointed by the king; in Maryland and New Netherland by the proprietor or company in Europe; but the governors of all the New England colonies were chosen by the voters.[1] Governor Stuyvesant made laws for the Dutchmen of New Netherland without asking their consent, if he could help it; in every English colony there was a representative legislative body, something like our state legislatures. These made laws which were usually presented to the gov-

[1] Virginia was called a royal province, Maryland a proprietary province, Massachusetts, and later Rhode Island and Connecticut, were chartered colonies because they were governed by the voters in accordance with the terms of a charter or grant from the king.

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ernor for his approval. These legislatures, or assemblies, consisted of two Houses.[1] In New England, the members of both Houses were chosen by the voters; in Virginia, the members of the upper House, or Council, were appointed by the king, and in Maryland, by Lord Baltimore, the proprietor. In every colony, the right to vote was restricted. Even in Virginia where it was freest, only a small portion of the men voted, because most of the white men were bound to service for a term of years. In Maryland, only landowners could vote; and in Massachusetts, only those who belonged to the company could vote and no one was admitted to the company unless he were a church member.[2]

68. Local government. — In Virginia, the great planters were supreme on their plantations. The colony was divided into counties which were ruled over by the leading men who were selected for this purpose by the governor. In New England, where the people were gathered into towns, all the less important matters were managed in town meeting, to which all the men could go, could take part in the discussion, and could vote.

69. Religion. — There were some Roman Catholics in Maryland, but otherwise all the colonists were Protestants. They belonged to a great many different Protestant religions. In Virginia they belonged to the English state church which answers somewhat to the Episcopal church of our time. In Massachusetts and Connecticut, likewise, nearly every one belonged to the church which was favored by the authorities. In New Netherland, the Dutch Reformed church was patronized by Stuyvesant, but so many

[1] The upper House was formed by the council sitting as a law-making body; it also sat as a court of law and advised the governor in the performance of his duties. The lower House was elected by the voters for the express purpose of making laws and voting money.

[2] This was later changed by order of the king so that men possessing a certain amount of property could vote.

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of the settlers belonged to other faiths that he was obliged to tolerate them. In Maryland, religion was free, so far as Christians were concerned, for the Maryland Assembly had passed a law in 1649 forbidding any one to trouble any Christian in the exercise of his or her religion, provided that such a Christian believed a certain doctrine.[1] In Rhode Island, alone, was religion absolutely free. There a man might belong to any church that he saw fit or might not belong to any church whatsoever, if that seemed to him to be best.

70. **The Quakers.** — In 1656, or thereabouts, there appeared in several of the colonies a new set of religious people who were commonly called Quakers, but who called themselves "Friends." These people believed in the absolute equality of all men, and wore their hats in courts, even in the presence of the judges. They disapproved of fighting and all kinds of warfare. They also thought that God was still giving his messages to men and women who were willing to listen. The Quaker missionaries who came over to spread these doctrines were not well received. In New Amsterdam, Stuyvesant hung one of them by the thumbs to a beam and otherwise maltreated him. The rulers of Virginia and Massachusetts provided by law that a Quaker who should persist in coming to one of those colonies should be put to death. Four were actually executed in Massachusetts for this reason. Many more of them were whipped and fined in Virginia and Maryland as well as in New England.

71. **Cruel punishments.** — Not only did they whip and hang people in the colonies at this time, but they punished them with great cruelty in Europe and England. In every town or county in the colonies there were to be found

[1] This was the doctrine of the Trinity. It will be seen from this that Unitarians and Jews were not tolerated in Maryland.

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stocks and pillory. The stocks were made by locking two planks together on edge. At certain distances holes were made large enough for a man's arms and legs. These stocks were placed in the public square near the court-house or the public building. The pillory was a kind of elevated stocks, the holes being large enough to admit the neck and wrists of the culprit. In Virginia, a person who was the second time convicted of pig-stealing was to stand in the pillory for two hours with his ears nailed to the board and at the end of that time have them cut loose. Those were the days, too, when persons were marked with a red-hot branding-iron indicating the offence for which they were punished, or were obliged to wear some unpleasant object, as a halter, about the neck. Old women who scolded too much were fastened into

Stocks.

Pillory.

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a chair on one end of a tilt and ducked in the nearest pond. Altogether the ideas of people in those days were so unlike the ideas that the people of our time have that it is not easy to compare the punishments of colonial days with those of the present time.

72. **Summary.** — In 1660, the English settlements were scattered along the coast from the Kennebec to the James. In all there were about ninety thousand colonists. Agriculture was the chief occupation of the people, but some were engaged in commerce. Colonial governments were very similar. Government and religion were closely connected except in Maryland and Rhode Island. The Quakers were disliked by nearly all the colonists and cruelly treated everywhere, except in Rhode Island.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- **Planting of a Nation in the New World, 1607–1660**
  - SOUTHERN COLONIES
    - *Virginia*
      - The Reason for Settling.
      - Virginia Pioneers.
      - Settlement of Jamestown.
      - Negro Slavery.
      - White Servants.
      - Local Self-government.
    - *Maryland*
      - Settlement.
      - Industries.
  - NEW ENGLAND
    - *Naming*
    - *New Plymouth*
      - Troubles in England.
      - The Mayflower Compact.
      - Sufferings.
      - The Way of Living.
      - Progress.
    - *Massachusetts*
      - Settlement.
      - Religious Troubles
        - Roger Williams.
        - Mrs. Hutchinson.
    - *Maine and New Hampshire.*
    - *Rhode Island.*
    - *Connecticut and New Haven.*
  - MIDDLE COLONIES
    - *New Netherland*
      - Henry Hudson.
      - Founding.
      - Progress.
      - Gov. Stuyvesant.
    - *New Sweden.*
  - COLONISTS IN 1660
    - *Number and Settlements.*
    - *Government.*
    - *Religion.*
    - *The Quakers.*
    - *Cruel Punishments.*

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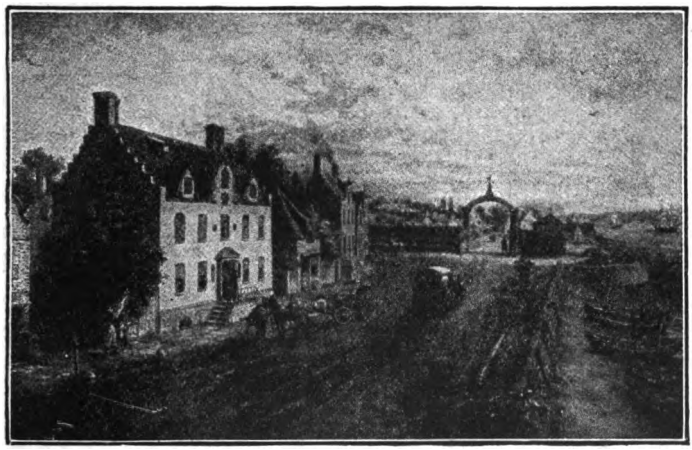
III

GROWTH OF THE COLONIES, 1660–1760

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

73. **Charles II and the colonies.** — Charles II became king in 1660 and, at once, a new period of activity began in the colonies. He sent out an expedition to conquer New Netherland from the Dutch, and leading men among his courtiers founded colonies in the Carolinas. The com-



New Amsterdam.

mander of the expedition to conquer New Netherland was Colonel Richard Nicolls. He reached New Amsterdam before Stuyvesant was prepared for his coming. The New Netherlanders had been at work repairing the fort on

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the southern end of Manhattan Island, but this was only half done when the English vessels appeared. Several days were spent in negotiation about the surrender, when Nicolls became impatient and told Stuyvesant that he would give him forty-eight hours more and then, if his terms were not accepted, he would open fire on the fort. Nicolls also told some of the leading men of New Amsterdam that if the colony was surrendered, they should enjoy favorable terms as English subjects. Stuyvesant, upon receiving Nicolls's last letter, stamped around the room on his wooden leg, tore the letter into bits, and scattered them over the floor. At the end of forty-eight hours, he was still for holding out and returning the fire of the English ships. He mounted the ramparts of the fort to fire a cannon when two Dutch ministers took him by the arms and led him away. It was in this manner that New Netherland passed into the hands of the English.[1]

74. James, Duke of York and Albany. — The king's brother was James, Duke of York and Albany, who became king, with the title of James II, on Charles's death. Charles had set about the conquest of New Netherland with a view to giving it to his brother as a great colonial property. So in his honor, the name was changed from New Netherland to New York, while the two principal towns were also named for him New York and Albany. The province which was handed over to James included all the settlements in New York and New Jersey, on Delaware Bay and River, and on the islands which lie to the south of New England, including Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. The king gave his brother complete rights of government

[1] A few years later, 1673, New Netherland was again in the hands of the Dutch for a few months and was finally surrendered to the English in 1674. This second Dutch period of possession was so brief that we can consider the history of New York as running on continuously from its conquest in 1664.

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over the people living in this great territory, except that any of them who wished might appeal to him from the Duke's decisions. James handed this great power over to Colonel Nicolls, who thus became as fully possessed of authority as Peter Stuyvesant had been. The Duke, Nicolls, and later governors made laws for the New Yorkers without asking their consent. They even collected money from them by the Duke's orders. In 1680, the people declined to pay these taxes any longer and James was obliged to make some other arrangement.

75. **Governor Thomas Dongan.** — Governor Dongan[1] was an Irishman of noble family, brother of the Earl of Limerick, and a man of great capacity. James ordered him to summon a representative assembly chosen by the freeholders in the colony and with them to make such laws as he thought best. The Duke reserved for himself, however, the right to repeal any of these laws at any time. It was in this way that the first representative assembly met in the city of New York in 1683. It passed many laws to make the government more popular than it had hitherto been.

76. **Governor Dongan defends the rights of England.** — The other important event in Dongan's career as governor of New York was the making a treaty with the Iroquois by which they acknowledged themselves to be subjects of the king of England. This treaty was very distressing to the French, for the Iroquois killed the French Indians and settlers and compelled many tribes living in the interior to sell their furs to them instead of selling them to the French. This stand taken by Dongan in defence of the sovereignty of the English king over the Iroquois and their lands is

[1] Dongan's name is sometimes spelled Dungan, Duggan, sometimes even Duncan. It was probably pronounced Dŭg′-găn. He was appointed by James and arrived in August, 1683, and was governor until 1688, when New York and New England were united with Sir Edmund Andros as governor.

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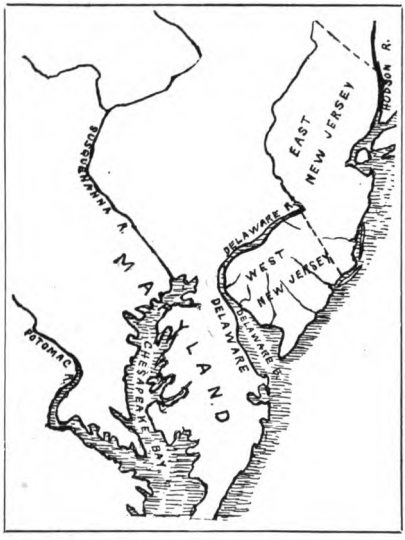
one of the most important things in the colonial history of New York and of the United States. It meant that the rich lands south of the lakes would be possessed and settled by Englishmen and not by Frenchmen.

77. The colonization of New Jersey. — The Stuart princes and kings were exceedingly generous to those of their courtiers who upheld their interests. Among those who had been faithful to Charles and James in the long trial of the civil wars were Berkeley and Carteret (Kär'tẹr-et). Even before Nicolls had completed the conquest of New Netherland, James gave the lands included in New Jersey to these friends. Probably neither the Duke nor Berkeley nor Carteret realized that these lands bordered on New York Harbor and that giving away this particular bit of New York was very much against the interest of the Duke. At all events he gave it to them, and they promptly set to work to secure colonists to make their property valuable. This they proposed to do by giving the lands to the colonists for an annual payment; but before long, they sold them outright to purchasers. The most famous man among those who bought lands in New Jersey was William Penn who later founded Pennsylvania. He was a Quaker and so were his partners. They first bought the southwestern



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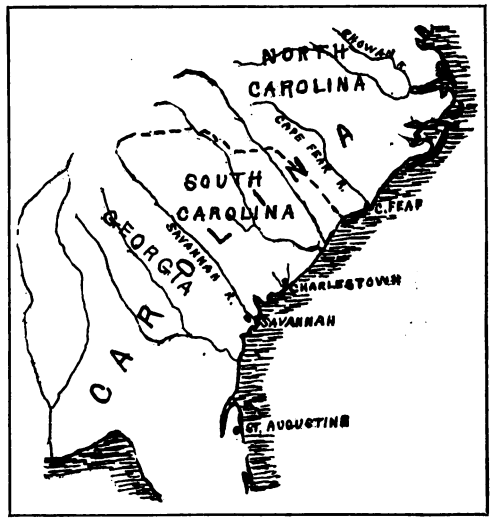
part of New Jersey, which was settled almost entirely by people of their religious profession. The greater part of northern and eastern New Jersey was colonized by New Englanders and others who were already living in the colonies, especially on Long Island. The Jersey colonists were so industrious and saving and so liberal to newcomers that they have always been very prosperous.

78. **Summary.** — Charles II began a new era of colonization. Under him New Netherland was conquered, the Carolinas and New Jersey were founded. New Netherland was renamed New York. Governor Dongan of New York cemented the friendship with the Iroquois and maintained the rights of England against the French.

THE CAROLINAS

79. **The beginning of the Carolinas.** — The country south of the settled parts of Virginia was very rich and fertile in many places and also was easy to get to by water. It was so far to the south of the center of English colonization that up to 1663 it had attracted little attention either in England or in the colonies. Some explorers had come from the islands which Englishmen had settled in the West Indies and others had come



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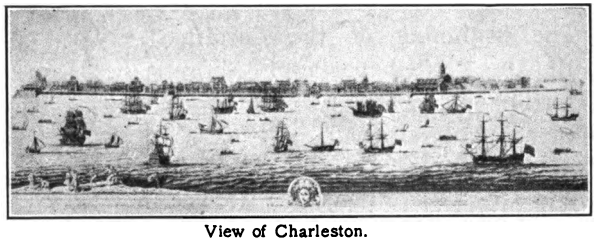
from New England; but none of these expeditions had so far resulted in the making of permanent settlements in this region. The first of these, south of the Virginia line,[1] was the one made by emigrants from that colony who hoped to get better farming lands there or to escape from the religious restrictions which bore hard on Baptists and Quakers in Virginia. In 1663 and 1665, Charles II gave the great territory between Virginia and Florida and extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific to a group of eight proprietors among whom were Berkeley and Carteret, whom we have already met in our study of New Jersey.

80. The settlement of Charleston, South Carolina. — In 1669, three vessels sailed from England for Carolina[2] with



View of Charleston.

more than one hundred colonists. Their voyage was extremely long and dangerous. Contrary winds kept them in sight of English shores until the passengers had consumed all their fresh provisions. Crossing the Atlantic, they followed the extreme southern route from the Canaries

[1] This was the beginning of North Carolina; but the two parts of Carolina were not definitely separated until the next century.

[2] Carolina from Carolus, the Latin name for Charles. The French named Fort Caroline (1564) in honor of Charles IX of France. The country south of Virginia was called Carolana in 1629 for Charles I of England. The name Carolina was used in 1663, in honor of the second Charles. At first Charleston was spelled with a "w," Charlestown; but when it became a city in 1780 the present spelling was adopted.

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to the English island of Barbadoes. Because of storms and mishaps, the colonists did not see the shore of Carolina until more than half a year had passed away.

The first settlement in South Carolina was made in 1670. The spot that was finally determined upon, where the city of Charleston now stands, was one of the most favorable for habitation and commerce on that coast. Between two rivers, the Ashley and the Cooper, the wharves of Charleston look right out to the sea, for the harbor[1] is not defended from the ocean by islands like that of Boston or New York, but by a succession of sand-bars that stretch under the water far out into the sea.

81. The colonists and the proprietors. — Colonists came to both parts of Carolina in considerable numbers. Among them were many French Protestants or Huguenots. The people were industrious and painstaking and they would have been happy and prosperous had it not been for the ill judgment of the proprietors. These only wished to make money out of the enterprise. Whenever the colonists seemed to be able to pay a little more in the way of taxes, or rents, or salaries for officials, or higher prices for their lands, the proprietors were very glad and at once proceeded to demand more money from them. The colonists, on their part, paid very little attention to the proprietors' desires and demands and rebelled against them every few years. As time went on, besides these troubles over money and lands, the settlers of southern Carolina and the proprietors became involved in a religious dispute.

[1] On the northern side of this harbor is one of the most famous islands in American history. It is named Sullivan's Island from Florence O'Sullivan, the surveyor of the colony, who came out on the first voyage. It was on the western end of this island that Fort Moultrie (Mōō'trĭ) was built in the Revolutionary War. Almost directly opposite, on a shoal spot in the middle of the harbor, Fort Sumter was built by the United States government and was as famous in the War for Secession as Fort Moultrie was in the War for Independence.

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The greater part of the colonists did not belong to the English state church of which most of the proprietors and their governor at Charleston were members. The governor succeeded in getting laws passed forcing the colonists to support and attend the Established Church under penalty of losing their votes for members of the assembly. The people appealed to Queen Anne. The result was that another law was made which compelled all people to pay for the established religion, but did not take away the vote from those who stayed away from the state services.

82. **Indian troubles in Carolina.** — Besides all these conflicts with the proprietors, the people of Carolina were attacked by the natives from within and by pirates from without. In North Carolina, there was a fierce Indian tribe, the Tuscaroras (Tŭs′kȧ-rō′raz), which was closely related by blood to the Five Nations of the Iroquois. These Indians attacked the North Carolina settlers again and again. The people in the southern colony sent expeditions to their assistance and finally drove the Tuscaroras away. These then went northwestwardly and joined the League of the Iroquois which thereafter was called the Six Nations instead of the Five Nations. In southern Carolina, the Yamassee Indians disliked the colonists fully as much as did the Tuscaroras in the north. The Yamassees were finally subdued, but not until many white people had been killed and much money had been paid for arms and ammunition and for the hire and food of soldiers.

83. **The Pirates.** — While these things were going on on land, the pirates were equally active on the water. Sometimes whole fleets of piratical vessels would anchor off Charleston Harbor and capture every ship bound into that port, almost in plain view of the citizens. The most remarkable of these pirates was Blackbeard, who was so called because of his long black beard. He was extremely

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bloodthirsty and cruel, and delighted in torturing people. On one occasion, when in want of medicine for his crew, he anchored off Charleston Harbor and sent a boat up to the city with a demand for the things that he needed. Lest the inhabitants should think that this was a good opportunity to get possession of a boat-load of pirates, they were further informed that Blackbeard had recently captured some of the leading men of that city who were then on his vessel and would surely be hanged if his boat and crew did not return. It is needless to say that the boat returned in safety. The people of Charleston destroyed several piratical fleets, but there seemed to be no end to them. Besides the Indians and the pirates, the Spaniards and the Frenchmen attacked the southern Carolinians or put them in constant danger. All this time the proprietors did nothing to help their colonists; on the contrary, when they had driven the Yamassee Indians from their lands, the proprietors ordered the governor to take possession of the conquered territory and hold it for them.

84. **The king takes the Carolinas.** — In 1719, when George I was king, the colonists appealed to him to take them under his protection and rule them as one or two royal provinces. This he did, and appointed governors, one for South Carolina, and another for North Carolina, and got Parliament to provide money to pay the proprietors for whatever rights they still possessed. This arrangement was made in 1728 and after that time it is right to speak of North Carolina and South Carolina as two separate colonies.

85. **The colony of Georgia.** — James Edward Oglethorpe [1]

[1] James Edward Oglethorpe was born in London in 1696. He obtained a commission in the British army when only fourteen years old. The founding of Georgia was his greatest enterprise, but he also began the reform of prison management because he was distressed by what he saw one day while visiting the prisons. He lived to be nearly ninety years of age, and was so

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(Ō′g'l-thorp), an English general, became greatly interested in the welfare of Englishmen who could not pay their debts. He obtained a charter from King George II, giving him and other good people a piece of South Carolina. He named his proposed colony Georgia, and gathered a band of poor debtors and others and sent them over. The first settlement was made at Savannah (Sa̭văn′a̭) on the river of that name in 1733. The Spaniards thought that this new settlement was altogether too near St. Augustine. Oglethorpe spent much of his time in warring with the Spaniards. Georgia grew very slowly, and it was not until after the American Revolution that it became very important.

86. **Summary.** — The Carolinas were settled by people from the Northern colonies and from England by way of the West Indies. The former settlements became North Carolina, the latter South Carolina. Charleston was the most important southern town. The proprietors of Carolina and the colonists constantly disagreed. Finally, the settlers asked the English king to govern them as a royal province, which he did. In 1733, Oglethorpe led the first settlers to Georgia.

PENNSYLVANIA, 1681

87. **William Penn.** — One of the greatest Englishmen of the day was William Penn.[1] He was a follower of

venerable in appearance in his last years that most people thought that he was even one hundred and four years of age when he died in 1785 in England.

[1] William Penn was born in London in 1644 and died in the debtors' prison in London in 1718. He was converted to Quakerism while a student at Oxford. He left the Quakers to please his father, but one day, in a little village in Ireland, heard the same Quaker preacher who had converted him at Oxford. For the rest of his life William Penn was a Quaker. He was a friend of Charles II and James II, and was thus able to do a great deal for the Quakers and also to get great grants of land in America for himself. He

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George Fox, the founder of the Society of Friends (§ 70), and a companion of the royal brothers, Charles and James. He was the son of the famous admiral of the same name, and became a Quaker much against his father's wish. The colony of New Jersey, where there were so many different kinds of settlers and whose government was so doubtful, did not entirely suit the designs of the younger Penn. He wished to found a colony where the Quakers would be supreme and where religion would be entirely free to all Christians. King Charles fell in with this idea and gave him a tract of land which the king called Pennsylvania, or Penn's Woods, in memory of the gallant admiral. On his part, James added the settlements on the southern side of Delaware Bay below the Pennsylvania line which had come to him as part of the conquered New Netherland. William Penn drew up an elaborate constitution for his great domain, in which he proposed to give his colonists self-government, retaining only enough power for himself to protect his interests in the lands and to carry out the terms of the charter of Pennsylvania. William Penn's name and liberality were known to people all over the British Isles and the countries of western Europe. When he printed and distributed his proposals for colonization, settlers at once flocked to the Delaware (1682). They came over in such numbers that within ten years of its founding Pennsylvania was a strong and prosperous colony.

88. Penn and the Indians. — One thing that helped the early prosperity of Pennsylvania was the fact that for

inherited a good deal of money from his father, but lost it through employing a rascally agent, and passed the last years of his life in poverty. He was on the point of signing the paper for the sale of Pennsylvania to Queen Anne, when a stroke of apoplexy put an end to his active life. His sons deserted the Society of Friends. They retained Pennsylvania, which in time yielded them a good income.

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many years the colonists had no trouble with the natives. The first Dutch colonists in Delaware had been murdered to a man by the Indians, but the later Swedish, Dutch, and English settlers had lived on very good terms with the Red Men. When Penn acquired the province, he wrote a letter to the sachems assuring them that he intended to be fair and liberal in his dealings with the natives of the country. He and the Quakers made every effort to carry out this promise. They forbade trading with the natives in secret, prohibited supplying them with strong drink, and tried to be fair in all their dealings with them about lands. Soon after his arrival, Penn made many treaties with them.[1] The Indians had very indistinct ideas as to lands and their rights to them. Roger Williams had already found this out in Rhode Island. Penn found it difficult to buy outright a given piece of land. Instead, the Indians preferred to give him rights to some vaguely described region, extending, let us say, from the Delaware westward as far as a man could ride on a stout horse in two days, or as far as one could walk in four days. One of the most famous of Penn's treaties with the Indians, of which he made a dozen or so, was that of the Walking Purchase. This tract extended as far westward as one could walk in four days. The first two days were walked in a leisurely manner by Penn and his white and red companions. The last two days were walked in quite another fashion. This time, in order to gain all the land possible, the way was laid out in advance and contests were held to select the fastest pedestrians. These held a sort of relay race in which they covered

[1] One of Penn's treaties is said to have been made under a large tree at Shackamaxon. Benjamin West, the painter, a hundred years later, made a celebrated picture of this scene. The tree is no longer standing, but West's picture, although inaccurate in detail, typifies the desire of Penn and his friends for fair dealing with the Indians.

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Penn's Treaty with the Indians. West.

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ninety-six miles in forty-eight hours through the wilderness. They went faster than the Indians could, and these complained of the way in which the thing was done. From this time on, the Pennsylvanians had constant trouble with the natives, but this was certain to come whenever the Indians became restricted as to land.[1]

89. **The founding of Philadelphia.** — Boston, New York, and Charleston grew up naturally, as need required; Philadelphia was founded according to a plan which William Penn drew up in England before his departure for America. He came to the colony in 1682 in the ship *Welcome*. Not long after his arrival, he went to the chosen site,[2] and there, with the aid of his companions, began the laying out of the city. He determined to have the streets run like the lines on a checker-board, some of them being parallel to the Delaware, the others running at right angles to these. To the former set of streets he gave the names of First, Second, Third, and so on; the latter he called by the name of trees, Spruce, Pine, Chestnut, etc. He left a broad space along the river bank for common use, and at the meetings of the principal streets he proposed to leave large squares to serve as recreation grounds for the inhabitants. Penn's plans were closely followed, except that some of the free spaces have been built over or made smaller. Settlers flocked to Philadelphia. While building their houses, many of them lived in caves which they dug out of the river's bank. Even after the houses were built,

[1] The natives had no idea of buying and selling land, but thought they were simply giving the whites the right to hunt or plant corn on it for a few years. With them the land belonged to the tribe and could not be given up by one of the chieftains. On his part Penn thought that he was actually buying the territory.

[2] He had already instructed his agent in Pennsylvania to pick out a site for his capital city. He told him to find some spot where the river was deep on the western bank, and, if possible, near the mouth of a navigable stream flowing from the west. The site selected just fitted these two requirements.

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many persons continued to live in these caves. Penn's design for a city has been widely followed in our country; but Philadelphia is one of the very few great cities which has grown up according to the first design.

At first Philadelphia occupied the space between the Delaware and the Schuylkill (Skōōl'kĭl), which came into it from the west.[1] It was soon found necessary, however, to extend beyond the Schuylkill and, indeed, to found other towns in the neighborhood. One of these was settled by Germans, and is still known as Germantown.

90. Quaker experiments in government. — It must not be supposed that Penn's schemes all worked out as well as did his plan of Philadelphia. On the contrary, he soon got into serious difficulties with his colonists. At the outset, they had agreed to pay him rents for the lands which they got from him. At the time of the founding of the colony, Penn was a rich man. Not long afterwards, he lost his money and became heavily burdened with debts. Probably, at first, both he and his colonists had expected the government to be carried on without any further taxes. When Penn found himself in difficulties for money, he looked to his colonists to help him out, or, at any rate, to pay for their government. There were other causes of disagreement, and the result was that Penn thought the settlers were very ungrateful for what he had done for them.

91. The Charter of Privileges of 1701. — Penn stayed in the colony for only a short time, being compelled to go back to England to look after his affairs there. In 1699, he again visited Pennsylvania and fully expected to spend a long time there, but was again compelled to return to England to defend himself and his colonists from those who

[1] Higher up the Schuylkill on the edge of the hills is Valley Forge, which is so memorable in our Revolutionary history.

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were hostile to them. Before leaving, he was anxious to place the government on a footing that would be fair to himself and his children on the one side, and to the colonists on the other. After talking the matter over with the members of the assembly for some time, they drew up a written constitution which is called the Charter of Privileges. It is a great law, because it served as a guide for the Penns and for their colonists for three-quarters of a century until 1776, when the people of the free and sovereign state of Pennsylvania adopted a state constitution. In this Charter of Privileges, provision was made for the annual election of a legislature or assembly of one house. This body was to make all the laws which must be agreed to by Penn's representative, the governor. No law could be made, however, to take away from any one liberty of conscience in religious matters. There were many other provisions. The most notable is one stating the mode by which this constitution could be altered or amended.[1] This last is important, because it was the first time that any such provision was put into a written constitution. William Penn and his colonists may be looked upon as having discovered one of the great principles of our government.

92. **The Colony of Delaware.** — One of the things that made it very difficult for Penn and his colonists to reach any agreement was the fact that some of them lived in Pennsylvania, which had been given to him by Charles II, and the others lived in Delaware,[2] which had come to him from Charles's brother James. The people of the latter colony were afraid that they would be greatly outnumbered by the Pennsylvanians and that, therefore, their interests

[1] This provided that the constitution could be amended by vote of six-sevenths of the members of the assembly with the consent of the governor.

[2] These colonists were Swedes and Dutch, together with a few English settlers (see § 64).

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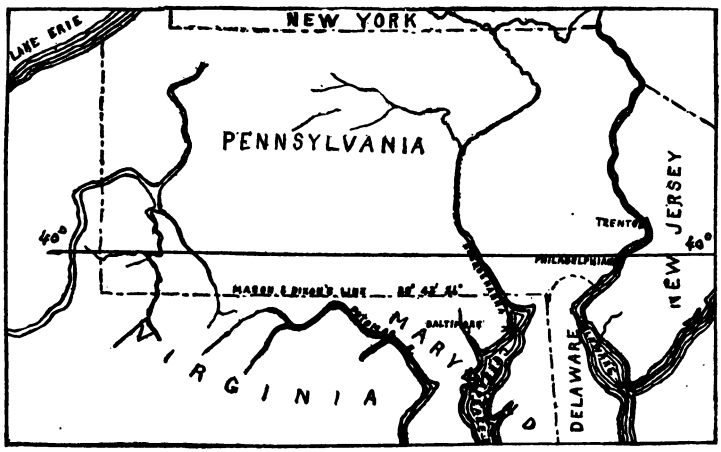
would be overlooked. They wanted to be independent of the latter, and no agreement as to government could be reached until Penn consented that they should have an assembly of their own. It was in this way that Delaware became a separate colony, but she had the same governor as Pennsylvania down to the Revolution, when she, too, formed a constitution and set up a government of her own as an independent state.

93. **Mason and Dixon's Line.** — There was so much land in America that one would think there was abundant room



Mason and Dixon's Line.

for all the colonists without their having disputes as to boundaries, but this was not at all the case. Massachusetts and Connecticut had long discussions as to the boundary between them, and they both opposed the claims of the New Yorkers. The most famous of all the colonial boundary controversies was that over the line between Pennsylvania and Maryland and between Delaware and Maryland. For years William Penn and Lord Baltimore quarrelled over this matter, and then it was taken into the courts in England,

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where it stayed for fifty years or so. Finally, in the middle of the eighteenth century, an agreement was reached and two surveyors were sent out from England to mark the line on the spot. Their names were Mason and Dixon, so that the line to-day is known as Mason and Dixon's line. It is the southern boundary of Pennsylvania and is particularly memorable because for a long time it marked off the slave states of the South from the free states of the North. The drawing of this line was very unfavorable to Maryland, because it took away from her a strip of land about eighteen or nineteen miles wide, extending along her whole northern boundary. Looking at the map, any one can see how great this loss was for Maryland, especially since the Potomac River, which was the southern boundary of that colony, approaches this line so nearly that Maryland is almost divided into two parts.

94. **Summary.** — William Penn, the Quaker, founded Pennsylvania. He treated the natives with great humanity, but after his death there were Indian troubles in Pennsylvania as in other colonies. Penn planned the city of Philadelphia before he left England, and it has developed almost exactly as he wished. Penn's schemes of government did not work well in practice. In 1701, he and the Pennsylvanians framed a constitution called the Charter of Privileges, under which Pennsylvania was governed up to the time of the American Revolution. In 1701, the settlers in Delaware were allowed to have an assembly of their own, and soon after separated from Pennsylvania. Mason and Dixon's line, marking the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland, is the most famous boundary line in the United States.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

Growth of the Colonies, 1660–1760

- **New York**
  - *Charles II and the Colonies.*
  - *James, Duke of York and Albany.*
  - *Governor Thomas Dongan.*
- **New Jersey**
  - *Colonization.*
- **The Carolinas**
  - *Under the Proprietors*
    - The Beginning of the Carolinas.
    - Settlement of Charleston.
    - The Colonists and the Proprietors.
    - Indian Troubles
      - The Tuscaroras.
      - The Yamassees.
    - The Pirates.
  - *A Royal Province*
    - North Carolina.
    - South Carolina.
- **Georgia**
  - *James E. Oglethorpe.*
- **Pennsylvania**
  - *William Penn.*
  - *Penn and the Indians.*
  - *Founding of Philadelphia.*
  - *Quaker Experiments in Government.*
  - *Charter of Privileges of 1701.*
- **Delaware**
- **Mason and Dixon's Line**

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IV

THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

NEW FRANCE[1] AND LOUISIANA

95. Champlain's explorations. — After founding Quebec (§ 27), Champlain explored the interior. In 1609, he went on an exploring expedition with a party of Indians from the St. Lawrence Valley, and discovered the lake that still bears his name. There, he attacked a band of Mohawk Indians of the Iroquois tribes and drove them away. Four years later, he again accompanied a war party of the northern Indians to attack the Iroquois. It was at this time that he saw Lake Huron and Lake Ontario. The Iroquois castle that he and the Indians assaulted proved to be one of the strongest of its kind. Champlain, seeing that his allies would never be able to capture it in the Indian fashion, set the men to work to build a wooden tower from the top of which he and his Frenchmen could fire over the castle walls, or palisade. This took only a few hours to make; when it was done, two hundred warriors dragged it into position. Other Indians constructed huge wooden shields under and behind which they could advance to set

[1] New France was the name given to the Canadian region.

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fire to the enemies' wooden defences without being exposed to the arrows and stones from the fort. All Champlain's efforts were in vain, because the natives were ill-trained and unwilling to do things in any other than regular Indian fashion. Champlain himself was wounded. The Indians bundled him into a big basket, and thus bore him away from the scene of the battle to the lakes. He made no other discoveries, but for the rest of his life attended to the business of fur trader. He occupied his leisure moments in writing accounts of his adventures, which he illustrated with rude, but wonderful, drawings. One of these is given in § 32 and shows the strength and vigor with which Champlain could attack an Indian castle and afterward draw a picture of it.

96. **The French on the Great Lakes.** — With the French explorer always went a missionary and a trader, or, if they did not actually accompany the explorer, they followed close behind him. Before long the Jesuit missionaries to the Hurons had converted the tribes living in the triangular space formed by Lake Huron on the west, and Erie and Ontario on the south and east. Then the Iroquois came across the lakes, burned the villages, killed the Red Men and some of the missionaries, and drove the rest back to Montreal and Quebec. Farther west and north, the prospect seemed better, because there the Iroquois would be farther off. As years went by, the mission station at Sault Ste. Marie (Sōō′ Sĕnt Mā′rĭ), at the outlet of Lake Superior, became the centre of French influence in the upper lake region. In 1671, an agent of the king of France appeared at this place and took possession for his royal master of all the lakes and regions round about, stretching way to the sea on the north and west. This he did in the presence of his soldiers clad in their gayest uniforms, of Indian traders in forest garb, of missionaries in their priestly robes, and

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of members of fourteen Indian tribes. He erected a wooden cross and by it a cedar pole to which was affixed a metal plate bearing the arms of the French kings.

97. **La Salle on the Great Lakes.** — The most famous French explorer to visit the Great Lakes after Champlain was the heroic and unfortunate La Salle. He had an idea of exploring the interior of the continent and of making the fur trade with the natives pay the cost of his explorations. His plan was to establish a post above the great falls at Niagara, build sailing vessels there, and in them carry on his commerce. His first vessel was named the *Griffin*. In the summer of 1679, he set out in her from the upper end of Niagara River, which was not far from the modern Buffalo, and sailed westwardly along the length of Lake Erie. He then entered the wonderful Detroit River, and with some difficulty passed out of this strait, or river, through Lake St. Claire into Lake Huron. Then, after encountering a severe storm, which nearly sent the *Griffin* to the bottom, he reached the settlement on Mackinaw Island which had taken the place of the earlier station at Sault Ste. Marie as the centre of French influence in that region. From this point, La Salle with the *Griffin* passed into Lake Michigan, across which he sailed until he came to an advance party that had collected a great quantity of furs. With these he freighted the *Griffin* and started her back to the station at Niagara, — and she was never heard from again. He himself with a party in canoes followed the western shore of the lakes southward, passing by the entrance of the Chicago River and building a fort at the mouth of the River St. Joseph.

98. **La Salle on the Mississippi.** — This great river had first been seen by Spaniards in its lower course. Later, the Frenchmen Marquette (Mär′kĕt′) and Joliet (Zho′le-ȧ′) had reached its upper waters from Lake Superior. No

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one knew much about this great river, whether it flowed southeastwardly into Chesapeake Bay, or southwardly into the Gulf of Mexico, or southwestwardly into the Pacific. After Joliet and Marquette, other explorers had navigated the Mississippi as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas.[1] La Salle determined to follow it to its ending in the sea, and thus find out what river it really was. In December, 1681, he left the southern end of Lake Michigan on this great search. At first he and his expedition passed over the ice, following the general course of the Illinois (Il-lĭ-noi′) River, until the ice gave way to open water, whereon they could launch their canoes. Early in 1682, they reached the Mississippi. It was so full of floating ice that it was hazardous to proceed. They waited, therefore, until it became clearer. Then they embarked, and for months paddled and drifted downward, passing the mouths of many rivers, until they came to a place where the Mississippi, instead of receiving any more branches, itself divided into several parts. The expedition separated and went down three of these mouths, and all returning reported that they had reached the salt sea. La Salle took possession of the lower Mississippi and all the region stretching from the mouth of the Ohio to the Gulf of Mexico and southwestwardly to the Rio Grande (Rio Grän′dā) under the name of Louisiana (Loo′ē-zē-ä′nạ). Then they returned to Canada and to France.[2]

99. **Founding of Louisiana, 1699.**—Among the most famous and energetic of Canadian Frenchmen were Iberville (E′bĕr′veel′) and his brother Bienville (Bē′ăn′vĕl′). In 1699, they induced Louis XIV, king of France, to send

[1] Pronounced as if it were spelled Ar′kan-saw.

[2] In 1684, La Salle led a colony to the coast of Texas. He was murdered by one of his own followers, while trying to reach the Mississippi overland. Some of his party returned to Quebec by way of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes; but most of them perished in Texas.

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them out at the head of an expedition for the purpose of founding a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. Iberville was a skilful seaman, and easily found his way through the Gulf of Mexico, but made the first settlement on the shores of Mobile Bay. After exploring the river for some distance, he went back to France, leaving his brother in command in the colony. For years Bienville governed Louisiana, so that his name is more closely connected with the history of that French colony than is that of the more famous Iberville.[1]

100. **Progress of Louisiana.**—Within a few years the town or city of New Orleans was founded on the Mississippi River about one hundred miles from its mouth. Other settlements were made higher up connecting Louisiana with the older French colony of New France. In 1745, there were three thousand whites and two thousand negro slaves in Louisiana. New France, or Canada, had also grown very slowly, so that the French colonies, although they encircled the English settlements, were weak so far as numbers were concerned.

101. **Summary.**—Champlain set out from Quebec, discovered Lake Champlain, and won the hatred of the Iroquois by attacking them without reason. The Jesuit missionaries converted the natives of the Great Lakes. La Salle built the *Griffin* above Niagara Falls and navigated Lake Erie, Lake Huron, and Lake Michigan. In 1682, he explored the Mississippi River to its mouth, and took possession of the neighboring country for France under the name of Louisiana. In 1699, the first permanent settlement was made in that French province.

[1] These brothers are always called from the names of their estates, Iberville and Bienville, as is the French custom. Really their names were Pierre (Peter), and Jean (John), Le Moyne (Leh-mwän′). Another example of the same custom is the name of La Salle, which properly should be Robert Cavelier (Kä′vä′lyä′), Sieur or Seigneur de la Salle.

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EARLY FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS

102. **Englishmen and the Indians.** — English colonists had much trouble with the Indians, except in the case of the Iroquois. The reason for this is to be found in the fact that the English settlements were made compactly for purposes of agriculture. The settlers took away the Indian lands and turned them into farms. All along the Atlantic coast they slowly pushed the natives back from the shore. At the same time the Iroquois, who were then at the height of their power, were constantly attacking the coast tribes, so that these natives were harassed on the east by the whites and on the west by the Iroquois. In their desperation the natives turned on the whites, seeking to drive them into the sea. In this way came about a series of Indian wars. There were terrible massacres in Virginia which almost threatened the very existence of the colony. In Maryland, the Indians attacked the whites so persistently that finally the governor directed the settlers to shoot any lurking Indian on sight, unless he bore a white flag. The Dutch had their troubles with the coast tribes, also. This was before Stuyvesant's day. At one time the Indian raids were so fierce that settlers were killed even in the streets of New Amsterdam. In New England, the Connecticut settlers had hardly built their first log huts before they were attacked by the neighboring Pequot tribe. They went to the fight with such good-will that they destroyed the tribe utterly.

103. **King Philip's War.** — At first the settlers of New Plymouth Colony and Massachusetts got along well with whatever natives there were in the neighborhood, with some few exceptions. This was because most of the Indians nearest the early settlements had been swept away by disease before the coming of the whites, or had died

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very soon after that, or had been terrorized by the vigor of Captain Miles Standish. The fair treatment which the governors of those colonies gave to the Indians also had something to do with the half century of peace which they enjoyed. In 1675 and the years just before, a new spirit of unrest possessed the remnants of the coast tribes from Maine to the Carolinas. In Massachusetts and Virginia, they fell upon the whites and were with great difficulty put down. This contest in New England is known as King Philip's War from the name of one of the leading chiefs. The Indians had become dissatisfied with the way the whites treated them and made a desperate attempt to regain their lands. A series of combats followed. Sometimes the Indians were successful, but the settlers won finally with the killing of King Philip.

104. Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia, 1676. — In Virginia, the Indian troubles led to a white rebellion against the governor, who seemed to be careless about protecting the lives of the settlers. Nathaniel Bacon, Jr., whose plantation had been attacked, took matters into his own hands and led a force against the Indians. Bacon drove the savages away and thus did a good service to Virginia; but the governor was indignant because Bacon did not get a commission from him first. This led to trouble with the governor as well as with the Indians. This uprising is known in Virginia history as Bacon's Rebellion from the name of its leader.

105. The English Revolution of 1688. — In 1688, the English people rebelled against James II. With the help of William, Prince of Orange, who had married James's daughter, they drove him out.[1] He took refuge in France,

[1] William, Prince of Orange, was the leading man in the Netherlands. His wife's name was Mary, and they ruled jointly as William and Mary. After their deaths, Mary's sister Anne became queen in 1701.

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and together he and Louis XIV made war upon England and Holland for the purpose of getting back his throne again. The English colonists in America sympathized with the revolutionists in England. In New England, New York, and Maryland, they rebelled and turned out the agents whom James and Baltimore had appointed. The war between France and England in Europe now extended to their colonies in America.

106. **The French and the Indians.** — The French had generally got on very well with the Indians, except the Five Nations. For the most part the French were content to leave the Indians in their wilderness homes. The French settlements grew very slowly, so that they did not need to take much of the Indian lands for farming. Then, too, their missionaries were very successful in their efforts. The Iroquois did not like the idea of becoming Christians, but the missionaries gradually collected some of them near Montreal, converted them to Christianity, and turned them into faithful allies. It was these Indians, under the leadership of Iberville and other daring Frenchmen, who stole through the forests to the south of the settlements in the St. Lawrence Valley and fell upon the frontier villages of New England and New York.

107. **The First French and Indian War.** — The French and Indian wars lasted with gaps from 1689 to 1763.[1] At first the French thought of conquering New York by a great expedition from France. If they could only do that,

[1] Although the French and Indian wars were really but one war with long intermissions, we find them mentioned sometimes as four wars, the first three being named after the monarchs then reigning in England, while the fourth was termed the "Old French and Indian War."

King William's War — 1689–1697.
Queen Anne's War — 1702–1713.
King George's War — 1744–1748.
Old French and Indian War — 1754–1763.

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they would have the Iroquois between two fires and might subdue them. It was impossible to carry out such a great undertaking with all the wars in Europe that King Louis had on hand, so his governor in Canada contented himself with sending expeditions southward to attack the settlements on the frontiers of New York and New England. In the dead of night, in February, 1690, French and Indians stole silently through the open gate of the town of Schenectady (Skę-něk'tą-dě) on the Mohawk River to the west of Albany. They broke open the doors of the houses, killed or captured nearly all the inhabitants, and then as silently departed on their return journey. Other parties attacked settlements in Maine and New Hampshire and even captured a fort which stood where the city of Portland, Maine, now stands. In return, John Schuyler (Skī'ler) with a few white men and a hundred Iroquois dashed down upon a French village on the St. Lawrence, opposite Montreal, killed all of the inhabitants whom they could find, destroyed their food, and got away without suffering any loss. After a few years this war came to an end.

108. The Second French and Indian War. — In Queen Anne's reign, war between France and England again broke out and again there was fighting in America. Once more the French and Indians came southward through the wilderness in the midst of the cold and snow of winter. The most striking event of this conflict was the attack on Deerfield, Massachusetts, in the Connecticut Valley, early in the morning of the last day of February, 1704. For nearly twelve hours and more the raiders shivered in the gloom of a pine forest, awaiting a favorable opportunity. The town was protected by palisades, and sentries were appointed to give notice of an enemy's approach. The night was so cold and disagreeable that these soldiers,

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thinking that no one would be out in such bad weather, left their posts unguarded and went to bed. When the time came, the attackers climbed over the wall without opposition. They killed fifty-three settlers and dragged more than a hundred away into captivity in Canada. Seventeen of them were tomahawked on the way because they could not keep up with the fighting men. Once arrived at the French settlements, the captors divided the prisoners among themselves without any regard to their family ties. Years later, many of them were ransomed by their friends, but some had lived so long with the Indians that they had adopted their costumes and habits and refused to return to their old homes.

109. **Conquest of Acadia.** — The wilderness north of New York and New England not only protected these savage marauders in their raids, but made it very difficult for the English colonists to march in any numbers to the conquest of New France. At the other end of the line, the settlements in Acadia could be easily reached by sea. There were plenty of ships in New England harbors and plenty of men to man them. So a naval conquest of Acadia was planned and carried out. After having been captured and given up several times it was finally conquered in 1710 and its name was changed to Nova Scotia. While these things had been going on in America, the war in Europe had turned out badly for the French. At the end of the war, they were glad to make peace with England even at the cost of Acadia [1] and at last recognized the Iroquois to be

[1] A sad and greatly to be regretted incident of these contests was the removal of the French inhabitants of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, from their homes by order of the British governor of that province. This was done in 1755 because it was unwise to leave so large and hostile a French people within easy reach of Halifax. For although the Acadians had been English subjects for half a century they had not become at all friendly with their new masters. The carrying them away was done as kindly as it could be, but there was a great deal of hardship and suffering.

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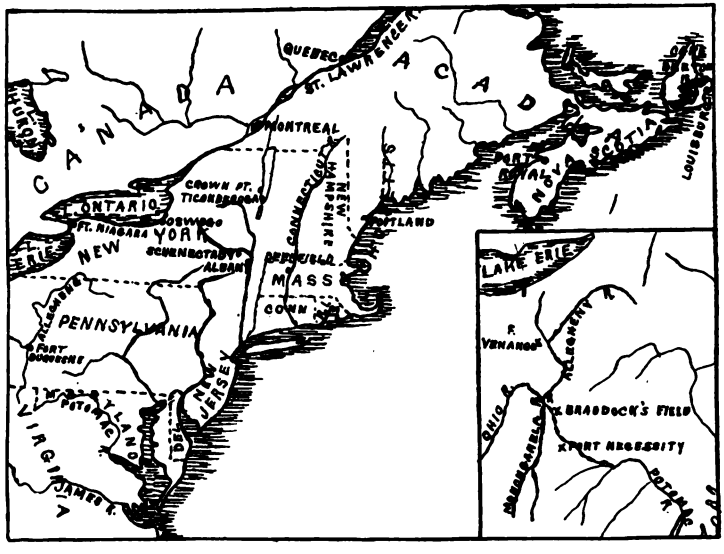
"subjects of England," which meant that attacking the Iroquois was thenceforward the same as attacking Englishmen.

110. **The Third French and Indian War.** — For some years now, the French and English stopped fighting on both sides



The French and Indian Wars.

of the Atlantic, but in 1744, they began again. In this war also there were campaigns in northern New York which did not amount to much, except to bring ruin and suffering to a good many people on both sides. On the Atlantic coast, the colonists once more triumphed. When the French lost Acadia, they fortified a harbor on Cape Breton Island, calling their fortress Louisbourg (Lōō′ĭs-bûrg). The New Englanders determined to capture this place, and in this resolve they were assisted by an English fleet. Under the command of William Pepperell, a prosperous merchant of Maine, the New Englanders sailed for this fortification in

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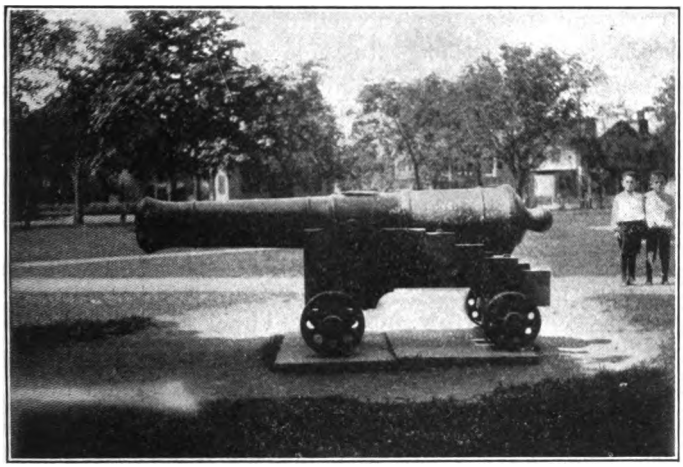
1745. Their troops were carried in fishing vessels and coasting schooners under the guard of one or two colonial war vessels, and were joined there by an English fleet. The colonists were very poorly off for heavy guns with which to batter down the walls of Louisbourg so that they could march in and kill its defenders. It chanced that on the opposite side of the harbor, the French had built a battery of



A heavy gun of that time.

heavy guns with which to fire on vessels coming in from sea. The invaders captured this battery without any trouble, hauled the guns overland to their own lines in front of the fort, and with the captured weapons battered it until a part fell down; then the French commander surrendered without waiting for a final assault. This was a wonderful feat for untrained militiamen; but the English government returned the conquered fortress and island to France at the close of the war and the whole thing had to be done over again.

111. **Summary.** — The English got on badly with the

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Indians because they took away their lands. In return the natives attacked the settlers. The most important Indian wars were King Philip's War in 1675 and Indian troubles in Virginia in the same year. The French got on well with the Indians because they did not take their lands for settlement, and their traders and missionaries lived in the Indian villages. February, 1690, a band of French and Indians attacked Schenectady. From that time, one French and Indian war succeeded another. In 1704, was the attack on Deerfield, Massachusetts. In 1710, Acadia was conquered and renamed Nova Scotia. In 1745, Louisbourg was captured by New Englanders and soon after handed back to the French by the king of England.

CONQUEST OF CANADA

112. The French in the Ohio Valley. — We have already seen how the French settlements and posts surrounded the English colonies in the interior. The French now determined to occupy the Ohio Valley, and thus gain a shorter line of communication between their settlements on the St. Lawrence and those in the Mississippi Valley, than the long roundabout way by Lake Michigan and the Illinois River. In 1749, a great expedition in twenty-three canoes was assembled on the southern shores of Lake Erie. From this point the Frenchmen gained the Allegheny River which they followed to the Ohio, and went down that stream as far as the Great Miami (Mī-äm′ĭ), up which they proceeded and so overland and by other rivers back to Lake Erie. During their progress, they had constantly come across English fur traders in the Indian towns. These they had warned off. They had also commanded the Indians to have no more dealings with the English, and every now and then had buried leaden plates properly inscribed to show that this country was a part of New

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France. They next proceeded to build forts at the important points on this route, especially where the Allegheny (Al′e-gā′nĭ) and Monongahela (Mō-nŏn-gā-hē′la) come together to form the Ohio. This fort they called for the governor of Canada, Fort Duquesne (Dü′kȧn′).

113. **Washington's first service.** — This activity of the Frenchmen was displeasing to the Virginians, who regarded this country as belonging to them. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, determined to send a note of warning to the French, telling them to desist from their enterprise. He selected as messenger George Washington, a Virginia surveyor twenty-one years of age, who had already won the approval of many important men by his sound judgment, sturdy character, and great courage. With one white man and an Indian guide Washington plunged into the wilderness, bearing Dinwiddie's letter. He passed by the site of Fort Duquesne, which had not yet been begun, and ascended the Allegheny until he came to the southernmost of the completed forts. He gave his letter to the French commander, and having accomplished his mission started for home. The return journey was very difficult owing to the thawing of the ice and snow, and also to the treachery of the Indian, but Washington got back safely.

114. **Fort Necessity surrendered.** — Dinwiddie was so pleased with the young man's enterprise that he appointed Washington second in command of a small force which had been raised to occupy the disputed region before the French could do so. The Virginians were too slow. The French drove off their advance party, occupied the coveted spot, began the building of Fort Duquesne, and sent an expedition into the mountains to find out what the Virginians were doing. Washington with his men came upon this scouting party, fired upon them, and killed their leader. A stronger force coming from Fort Duquesne,

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Washington was obliged to take shelter with his men in a hastily constructed work which was named Fort Necessity, and there he was compelled to surrender, July 4, 1754. In this way began the great war which ended in the conquest of Canada.

115. **Braddock's defeat, July 9, 1755.**—The English government agreed with Dinwiddie that the French were intruding upon what rightfully belonged to the king of England and his colonists. Some regiments of regular soldiers of the British army, under the command of General Braddock, were sent over to drive out the French. No roads led westward from the settled parts of Virginia to the Ohio Valley. There were paths and trails which had been used by Indians and fur traders, but these were not fitted for the passage of artillery and wagons carrying supplies of food and ammunition, and so it was necessary to open a road through the forests. Washington and many other colonists came to Braddock's aid, and Franklin, in Pennsylvania, saw to furnishing him with wagons and supplies, although the Pennsylvania government, which was still in the hands of the Quakers,[1] would not give any active assistance. The way led over steep mountain passes and across many rapidly running streams. The advance was, therefore, slow. The French at Fort Duquesne were so impressed with the numbers and discipline of the English army that they seriously thought of retiring without making any defence. They determined, however, to make one attempt. It happened, therefore, when Braddock and his men had crossed the last river, and had gained a point within a few miles of Fort Duquesne, that they suddenly found themselves assailed in front and on either side by Indians and white men,

[1] One of the articles of Quaker faith was on no account to fight; and they steadily refused to take part in these wars.

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fighting wilderness fashion from behind trees and anything else that offered protection. This was a kind of warfare to which Braddock and his English troops were entirely unaccustomed. They were brave and so was he, but he could think of no better way to meet this danger than to arrange his men in line and advance to the attack exactly as if he had been fighting regular French soldiers on an open battlefield of Europe. Washington and the Virginians did what they could to save the day by fighting the Indians and French in their own manner, but this proved to be impossible. Braddock was mortally wounded; retreat was ordered, and the defeated soldiers ran away, each man for himself as fast as he could go.

116. **William Pitt.** — For two or three years the war went on without any important success on either side. Then William Pitt, England's greatest war minister, came into power. At once there was a great change. Instead of sending old men, like General Braddock, to lead the armies in America, he picked out younger men, giving them command in America only. He gained the good-will of the colonists by offering to have them repaid by Parliament for a large part of their war expenses. Above all he used all the forces of England, the ships at sea, as well as the soldiers on land, to carry out one well-considered plan after another. Everywhere now there was victory for the English arms. One expedition pushed through Pennsylvania to Fort Duquesne, which was abandoned by its garrison. The English renamed it Fort Pitt. Another expedition marched up the Mohawk Valley, reoccupied an English trading station at Oswego on Lake Ontario, crossed the lake and captured a French fort on the northern side. Another expedition led by General Amherst, with whom was Brigadier General James Wolfe, again captured Louisbourg, which has ever since been in English hands. In this year, 1758,

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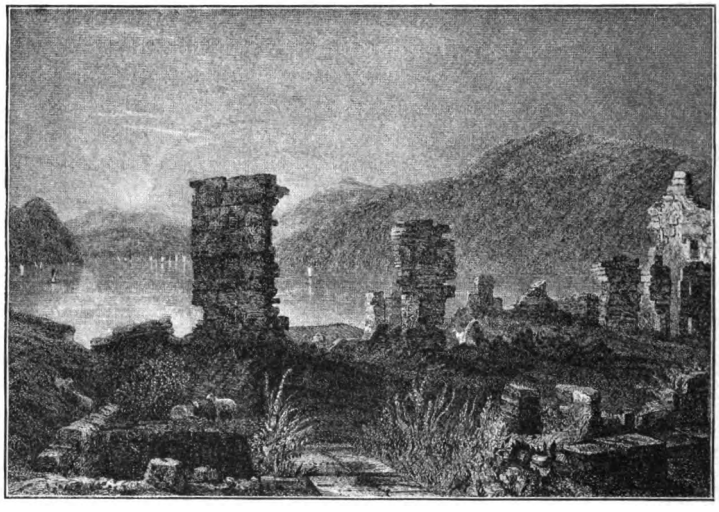
there was only one great disaster. This was at Ticonderoga (Tī-kŏn′der-ō′ga), where Lake George flows into Lake Champlain. There a superior army of soldiers and colonists recoiled from a smaller French force which was splendidly led by the heroic general, Montcalm (Mŏnt-käm′).

117. The campaign of 1759. — For the year 1759, Pitt planned a most extensive series of operations. His idea



Ruins of Ticonderoga.

was that the English navy should keep the French naval forces in Europe and prevent any help being sent to New France. He designed that Amherst should advance from New York to the St. Lawrence by way of Ticonderoga and Lake Champlain, while General Wolfe ascending the St. Lawrence with an army of English regulars should capture Quebec.[1] To make Wolfe's position secure, he was to be

[1] Attention has been twice called in the above paragraph to the part played by the British navy because this isolation of the French forces in Canada is one of the best examples of the "influence of sea power in history" that American

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accompanied by a strong fleet of warships. Amherst and Wolfe joining forces in the St. Lawrence Valley would have New France at their mercy.

118. **The campaign in New York, 1759.** — Amherst was able to carry out only a part of his share in the general scheme. When the French realized what a great force was at last to be sent against Canada, they hastily withdrew from Ticonderoga and gathered all available men at Quebec. Amherst was obliged, however, to build vessels on Lake Champlain to convey his troops and supplies to the northern end of the lake. By the time he had done this, it was too late to march to the help of Wolfe. On the west, at Fort Niagara, the English won a great victory by not only seizing that post which controlled the route up and down the lakes, but also by defeating a force which had been hastily gathered from the French forts and settlements in the interior.

119. **The attack on Quebec, 1759.** — When Wolfe with his army and attendant fleet anchored off Quebec and he looked at the frowning fortress that guards the passage up the St. Lawrence, he at length realized the greatness of the task to which Pitt had set him. Montcalm had gathered sixteen thousand men with which to oppose Wolfe's nine thousand veterans. Quebec stands on the northwestern bank of the St. Lawrence, the fortress being on an immense cliff. Above the river is bordered by a series of steep, rocky bluffs that can be scaled at only a few points. Below, the French army occupied a strongly intrenched camp which proved to be almost unapproachable from the river, owing to the shoalness of the water along the river bank and the fortifications which the French had erected.

annals afford. Not only did the supremacy of the British naval force at Quebec prevent the succor of that place from France; it also gave Wolfe the security of a safe line of retreat in case of need.

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Farther down, the position was defended by the Montmorency (Mŏnt′mō-rĕn-sī) River which flowed between steep banks and was almost impossible to cross, except at its mouth. If only the English veterans could get at the French force, they would make short work of them, but the great trouble was to overcome these natural defences.

120. Fall of Quebec, 1759. — For weeks and months, Wolfe tried first one thing then another. He bombarded Quebec from the opposite shore; he assailed the intrenched camp from the river. English vessels passed the batteries at Quebec and tried to find a place above the fortress where the army could land on the Quebec side of the St. Lawrence. For a time every effort failed. Almost any other man than Wolfe would have given up in despair. He determined to make one last effort. Marching the better part of his force during the night up the southern side of the river somewhat above Quebec, he placed them in boats and then in the darkness drifted slowly down to a little inlet which has ever since been called Wolfe's Cove. There a path led to the level ground on the heights above. This path had been obstructed by felling trees across it, and a guard was stationed at the upper end. Once on shore, an advance party scrambled up the side of the cliff, overpowered the guard, and thus opened the path for the main body.

When day dawned, the British found themselves on the Plains of Abraham, in sight of the walls which protected the landward side of Quebec. At once Montcalm marched his men from their camps below the city and advanced to crush the British before their whole force could be assembled. Although they greatly outnumbered the British, the discipline of the latter soon told. They fired faster and better and then rushing forward fell upon the Frenchmen so fiercely that they turned and fled for their lives. At this moment of victory and defeat, when the fate of

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America was in the balance, both leaders, Montcalm and Wolfe, were mortally wounded.

121. The end of New France. — With the fall of Quebec, France lost her hold on America. The next year, 1760, Amherst advanced on Montreal, where the remnants of the French forces were gathered. No help had come to them from France and none could come while the British held the sea. The only thing they could do was to surrender. With Montreal the governor gave over all of New France to the victors. For two years more the war continued in the West Indies and other parts of the world. In 1763, it was brought to an end by the Peace of Paris by which France surrendered all of North America, east of the Mississippi, to Great Britain with the sole exception of the island on which New Orleans stands. This, with all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi, France gave to Spain. She did this because the king of Spain had been obliged to give Florida to England to secure the return of Cuba which the English had conquered.[1]

Great Britain was now the possessor of all North America east of the Mississippi, excepting the island of New Orleans which was now Spanish territory and two islands, St. Pierre (Săn′ Pē-ar′) and Miquelon (Mē′ke-lōn′) in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which were given to France to serve as fishing stations. These little islands to this day belong to France and are all that remain of the once mighty French power in North America.

122. Summary. — The French occupied the Ohio Valley. Washington was sent to warn them off, but they persisted.

[1] The kings of France and of Spain belonged to the royal Bourbon (Bōōr′bŏn′) family. There was a compact between the members of this family to help each other in case of need. But if the member that came to the assistance of the other should lose territory through giving this aid, he must be recompensed. France had asked Spain for assistance and was therefore obliged to make good the losses of the Spanish king.

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Soldiers came from England under General Braddock to drive them away, but were utterly defeated. William Pitt, the great English war minister, took charge of affairs. In three years' time Louisbourg was recaptured, New York cleared of the French, Quebec and Montreal taken, and New France surrendered to the English.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- **The French in America**
  - NEW FRANCE AND LOUISIANA
    - *Champlain's Explorations.*
    - *The French on the Great Lakes.*
    - *La Salle*
      - Great Lakes.
      - Mississippi River.
    - *Louisiana*
      - Founding.
      - Progress.
  - EARLY FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS
    - *The English and the Indians*
      - King Philip's War in New England.
      - Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia.
    - *The Revolution of 1688 in England.*
    - *The French and the Indians.*
    - *First French and Indian War*
      - Attack on New York.
      - Attack on Maine.
      - Attack on New Hampshire.
    - *Second French and Indian War*
      - Attack on Deerfield, Massachusetts.
      - Conquest of Acadia.
    - *Third French and Indian War*
      - The Taking of Louisbourg.
      - Return of the town to France.
  - CONQUEST OF CANADA
    - *The French in the Ohio Valley*
      - Location of Forts.
      - Washington's First Service.
      - Fort Necessity.
    - *Fort Duquesne*
      - Braddock's Defeat.
      - Fort Pitt.
    - *Louisbourg Recaptured.*
    - *Campaign of 1759*
      - In New York.
      - The Fall of Quebec.
      - End of New France.
  - TREATY OF 1763.

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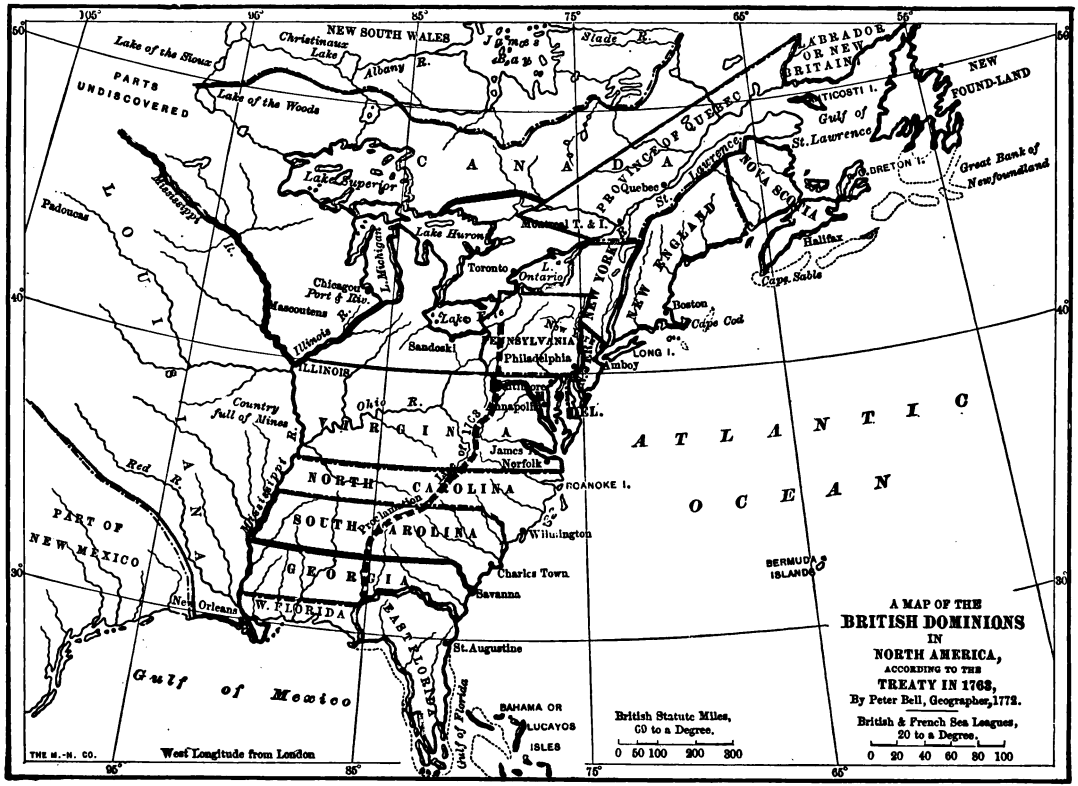
A MAP OF THE
BRITISH DOMINIONS
IN
NORTH AMERICA,
ACCORDING TO THE
TREATY IN 1763,
By Peter Bell, Geographer, 1772.
British Statute Miles, 69 to a Degree.
0 50 100 200 300
British & French Sea Leagues, 20 to a Degree.
0 20 40 60 80 100
West Longitude from London
THE M.-N. CO.
PARTS UNDISCOVERED
NEW SOUTH WALES
Christinaux Lake
Lake of the Stone
Lake of the Woods
Albany R.
James B.
Slade R.
LABRADOR OR NEW BRITAIN
ANTICOSTI I.
NEW FOUND-LAND
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Great Bank of Newfoundland
CANADA
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
NOVA SCOTIA
CAPE BRETON I.
Halfax
Capes Sable
Lake Superior
Lake Huron
Montreal T. & I.
Toronto
L. Ontario
Lake Erie
Sandoski
Chicagou Port & Dio.
L. Michigan
Mascoutens R.
Illinois R.
Mississippi R.
Padoucas
LOUISIANA
ILLINOIS
Country full of Mines
Ohio R.
NEW YORK
NEW ENGLAND
Boston
Cape Cod
LONG I.
Amboy
PENNSYLVANIA
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Annapolis
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
James R.
Norfolk
NORTH CAROLINA
ROANOKE I.
SOUTH CAROLINA
Willmington
Charles Town
Savanna
GEORGIA
W. FLORIDA
New Orleans
Red R.
PART OF NEW MEXICO
Gulf of Mexico
EAST FLORIDA
St. Augustine
Gulf of Florida
BAHAMA OR LUCAYOS ISLES
BERMUDA ISLANDS
ATLANTIC OCEAN

V

ENGLAND AND THE COLONIES, 1763–1775

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES IN 1763

123. Extent of settlement in 1763. — The thirteen colonies[1] now extended in an almost unbroken line from the Penobscot River in Maine, on the north, to the St. Mary's River in Florida, on the south. The settlements were confined to the Atlantic slope, except that in western Virginia and in Pennsylvania, the colonists had begun to occupy some of the great valleys of the Allegheny Mountains. Almost all of the people were farmers and planters; but Charleston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Newport, and Boston were thriving seaports.

124. Colonial governments. — In each colony there was a governor and a legislative body. In only two colonies, Rhode Island and Connecticut, were the governors elected by the voters; in all the rest they were appointed by the king or by proprietors with the consent of the royal government in England. The members of the assemblies were elected by the voters in every colony. In most of them, councils, the members of which were appointed by

[1] From north to south the thirteen colonies were (1) New Hampshire, (2) Massachusetts Bay, which then included Maine, (3) Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, or Rhode Island as it is usually called, (4) Connecticut, (5) New York, (6) New Jersey, (7) Pennsylvania, (8) Delaware, (9) Maryland, (10) Virginia, (11) North Carolina, (12) South Carolina, (13) Georgia. These later formed the thirteen original states. The first four were the New England Colonies; the last five were the Southern Colonies, and those in between were the Middle Colonies.

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the king, acted as the upper House of the legislature and also advised the governor as to the performance of his

Extent of Settlement in 1763. (The settled portion is shaded.)

duties and in making appointments. In all the colonies, the cities, towns, counties, and parishes carried on their own business affairs.

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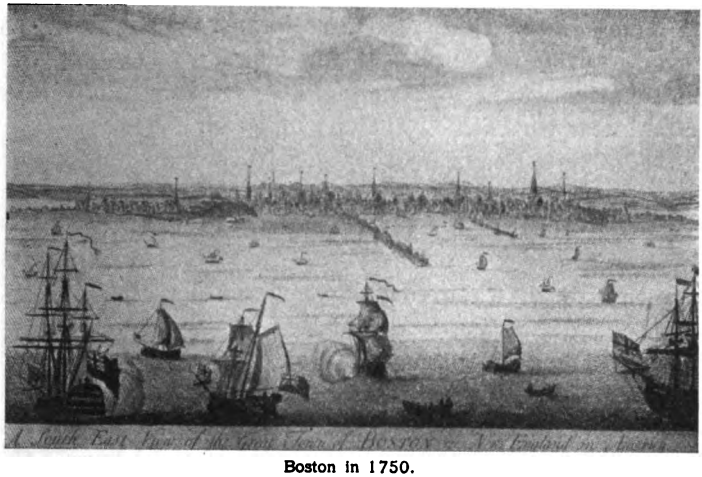
125. Intercolonial communication. — Travellers went from one colony to another generally by water, but a series of wagon roads[1] extended from Boston to Baltimore. There were no bridges over the large streams, which were crossed by means of ferries. From Philadelphia, a road led westward. It crossed the Susquehanna River at York and then turned southward to the Potomac



Boston in 1750.

at Harper's Ferry. Thence it led through the Shenandoah (Shĕn′ăn-dō′a) Valley, or Valley of Virginia, and southward to the Carolinas. It was along this great road that thousands of pioneers passed to clear the land on the frontiers of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the Carolinas.

126. The coming of the foreigners. — Most of the early colonists came from England or other parts of the British

[1] The word "road" here does not mean a splendid stone road like those which have lately been built in so many parts of the country. The colonial roads were hardly more than well-used cart-paths; but they differed from the Indian trails which they frequently followed in being suitable for wagons instead of only being fitted for human beings or pack animals.

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Islands. There were a few Frenchmen, especially in South Carolina, and some Germans in Pennsylvania. In 1710, thousands of Germans arrived in London. For a time the English government lodged the new-comers in tents and provided them with food. It then tried to find homes for them somewhere within the limits of the British Empire. More than a thousand of them came to America in the next few years, settling at New Berne in North Carolina and at Germanna in Virginia. Most of these, however, came to New York, but, after a while, the greater part of them went overland to Pennsylvania, where they settled near what is now the city of Reading.[1]

127. The Germans. — About 1720, German immigrants began coming to Philadelphia in great numbers by the way of Rotterdam and other Dutch seaports. Some of them had money enough to pay their passage, but very many of them, when they landed at Philadelphia, found themselves indebted to the master of the ship, or, more often, absolutely penniless in a strange land. They sold their services to the first person who would pay their debts and provide them with food and shelter. Men made a regular business of going to Philadelphia and buying the services of these German laborers, whom they would take with them into the interior and sell to the farmers. Often families were obliged to separate, the parents going in one direction and the children in another; sometimes they would never see each other again. These German servants were called redemptioners.[2] They soon learned to

[1] Most of the Germans of this migration came from that part of Germany which lies next to Switzerland and is called the Palatinate (Pa̱-lăt′ĭ-nāt). They are, therefore, called the Palatines (Păl′a̱-tīns), and, as most of them were very poor, historians refer to them as "the poor Palatines."

[2] They were called redemptioners, because by three or five years of service, they redeemed themselves from the debts which they owed on landing in the colony. These immigrants and their descendants are usually called the "Pennsylvania Dutch," but in reality they were Germans.

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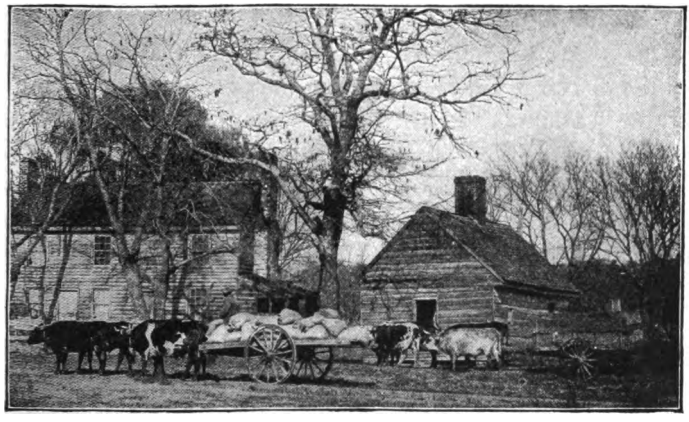
cultivate the soil of Pennsylvania, and, when their terms of service were over, they would set up for themselves as farmers. They were very industrious and economical, so that in ten or a dozen years after landing penniless at Philadelphia, many of them were prosperous farmers and house owners. They settled in the central and southern parts of



A Farmhouse in the Middle States.

Pennsylvania, in western Maryland, and in the Valley of Virginia, and in the upper parts of North Carolina.

128. **The Presbyterians from Ireland.** — In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Scottish Protestants of the Presbyterian religion had settled in the northern part of Ireland. Many of their descendants still live there, but large numbers of these Irish Presbyterians came to America. Some of them founded Londonderry in New Hampshire, others came to Massachusetts; but the great mass of them settled in Pennsylvania to the westward of the Germans, or followed the great road southward into Virginia and the Carolinas. At first the Germans and Irish Presbyterians did not take much interest in Pennsylvania politics, but at the time of

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the Revolutionary War they came forward and joined in the struggle with energy and determination.[1]

129. **Occupations of the New Englanders.** — People living in Massachusetts and the other New England colonies grew enough corn and other food for their own needs and sent some away. They also engaged extensively in fishing and in building ships and sailing and managing them. Their ships not only carried the products of New England farms and fisheries, but shared with Englishmen and the ship-owners of the Middle Colonies in the commerce of Virginia and the Carolinas and of the sugar plantations of the West India Islands. Perhaps the most remarkable commercial town of colonial days was Newport on the southern end of Rhode Island. Vessels belonging to merchants of that town sailed to southern Europe and Africa, and all along the Atlantic sea-coast and through the West Indies. They carried slaves from Africa to the Southern Colonies and the West Indies and brought home great quantities of ivory, palm oil, sugar, and molasses, which were distributed throughout southern New England.[2]

130. **Occupations in the Middle Colonies.** — The farmers of the Middle Colonies produced great quantities of food-stuffs which were shipped from Philadelphia and New York City to the West Indies and to Europe. The ship-owners of those seaports also engaged actively in the slave-trade and in carrying the commerce of the Southern Colo-

[1] Among the Germans was General Muhlenberg (Mu'lẹn bẹrg), who fought bravely with Washington and whose brother was Speaker of the first Congress of the United States. John C. Calhoun and General Jackson were descended from Irish-Presbyterian immigrants.

[2] It is interesting to think of this business activity of Newport in those early times and to contrast it with the present day, when that city has no foreign commerce whatever and is, indeed, hardly more than a summer resort for the very rich people of New York and of the other great centres of business life. This change has been caused by the railroads, which have concentrated commerce at a few favored spots.

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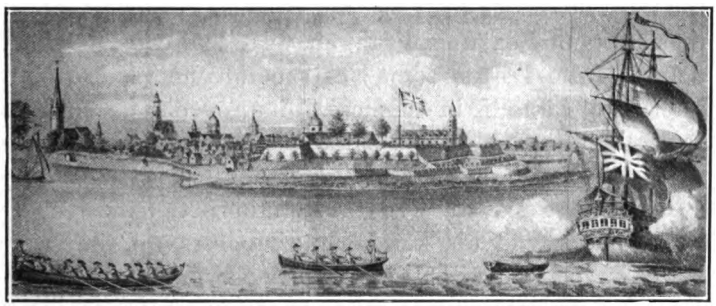
nies. The people of the Middle Colonies also traded with the Indians for furs, and were beginning to do a good deal of manufacturing, especially in Pennsylvania, where they mined iron ore and fashioned it into pig-iron and bars.

131. **Occupations of the Southerners.** — The people of Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia were engaged entirely in agriculture. In Maryland and Virginia, they grew corn and wheat, but the production of tobacco was the principal source of their wealth. In Maryland, a thriving business town had grown up at Baltimore, but in



A View of Fort George, with the City of New York from the Southwest, 1740.

Virginia, the tobacco was shipped directly from the plantations, which nearly always lay along the rivers. In the upper regions of North Carolina the settlers produced tobacco, but near the sea-coast they were mainly occupied in making tar, pitch, and turpentine from the pine trees which grew abundantly there. In South Carolina and Georgia, the planters raised rice, which was sent to Europe and to the West Indies. Charleston, in South Carolina, was an important shipping port, but there were no large towns in North Carolina.

132. **Population in 1763.** — There were then living in the thirteen colonies more than one and a half million

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human beings. Nearly nine hundred thousand of them lived in Pennsylvania and the other colonies north of Mason and Dixon's line. In every colony, there were negro slaves, but they were so numerous in the South that there were only about one-third as many white people in that region as there were in the North. Philadelphia, Baltimore, New York, and Albany were cities; that is to say they were governed by mayors, aldermen, and common councilmen, but they were not at all like our cities in other respects. Philadelphia was the largest of them, but nowadays a city of this size would be regarded as only a good-sized town. It was the most attractive place in the colonies, owing largely to the efforts of Benjamin Franklin. He had come to Philadelphia from Boston some years before and had greatly interested himself in municipal improvements, such as street lighting and paved sidewalks in the busier portions of the town.

133. **Negro slaves.** — In the Southern Colonies, negro slaves had largely displaced white laborers, for they were better suited to work in the damp rice swamps of Georgia. Even in Virginia, they were employed on the great tobacco plantations, almost to the exclusion of white workers. In Maryland, there were still many white laborers. North of that colony, the negroes congregated in the seaport towns, but there were many of them employed on the large estates and farms in Rhode Island. The slaves were well treated as long as they worked hard and did not try to run away, but when they were punished, they were severely punished. In South Carolina, alone, the negroes outnumbered the whites, but in Virginia they formed nearly one-half of the total population.[1]

[1] On the great plantations of Virginia and South Carolina, the negroes lived in "quarters" by themselves, somewhat removed from the planter's house. A few of the slaves were trained to do carpenter's work or mason's work, so that

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134. **Religion.** — Religion was not made entirely free in any colony or state, except Rhode Island, until after the Revolution. In 1763, the old religious strictness was already fast breaking down. Some years before, there had been a series of religious revivals. Travelling clergymen preached to great masses of the people in any large building that could be procured, or even in the fields. The Methodists and some of the other Protestant sects sent missionaries to the colonies where other religions were supreme to convert the people to their way of thinking. Presbyterians, Methodists, and Baptists were especially successful among the settlers on the frontiers. Many colonists broke away from all churches, and belonged to no sect. Of this type was Benjamin Franklin, who collected money from his friends in Philadelphia to build a great room, or hall, in which any clergyman could preach. Maryland was the only colony where the Catholics were numerous in proportion to the whole population. The Protestants obtained control of the government of that colony about 1700. They passed laws to compel the Catholics to pay double taxes and, at the same time, took away from them the right to vote, so that Maryland, which had been very liberal in religious matters, was now quite the opposite.

135. **Colonial schools.** — Throughout the colonies, the settlers from the beginning had desired to have their children taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the South, the people lived so far from each other on the great plantations that it was not easy to send their children to one schoolhouse, so that there were few public schools in that section. In the Middle Colonies, the people lived

the large plantations were almost self-supporting, except for the expensive clothes and other luxuries that were imported from England for the master and his family.

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nearer together, but they had so many religions that it was impossible to establish a public school system until the parents were willing to have their children taught without any reference to religion. In New England alone did the people live so compactly and think so nearly alike on religious matters that it was possible to establish a public school in each town to which all the children could go.

A Colonial Schoolhouse.

The instruction in these schools went hardly beyond that which pupils in the fifth grade nowadays enjoy, except in the largest towns, where there were schools and academies that fitted pupils for admission to college. In the colonies where there was no public school system, there were schools in the larger towns, and private tutors taught the children of the richer planters. Schools were also attached to many churches. These were designed for the education of the children of parents who worshipped in those churches.

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136. **The colleges.** — The colonists were also eager to establish colleges. Massachusetts had been founded only six years when, in 1636, its legislature voted to establish an institution where young men could be trained to be ministers for the Puritan churches of New England. It took its name from John Harvard, who made it its first private gift. The Virginians had even before this thought of founding a college, but it was not until 1691 that William and Mary College was established at Williamsburg for the education of Episcopalian ministers. Soon after 1700, other colleges were founded, as Yale College at New Haven, the College of New Jersey at Princeton, and King's (now Columbia), at New York. In 1749, Benjamin Franklin, with the aid of many friends, founded the "Academy" at Philadelphia, which became the University of Pennsylvania. Franklin's wish was that science and English might be given special attention, but his ideas were only partly carried out.[1]

137. **Newspapers.** — The colonists also profited greatly by reading the essays and other matter that appeared in their newspapers. Thomas Jefferson is reported to have declared that if he could only have one, the government or the newspapers, he would prefer the latter, because if the people were properly instructed, they could be trusted to govern themselves. The earliest newspapers were really written letters which were several times copied and sent out once a week to subscribers. The postmasters had the best chance to get the earliest news, so that these "news-letters" were often written by them. In 1704, the postmaster at Boston began to print[2] his "news-letters" instead

[1] Franklin thought that too much attention was paid to the teaching of Greek and Latin, which he called the "dead languages."

[2] The first printing-press in America was brought to Mexico fifty years or so before the founding of Virginia. The oldest press in the English colonies was set up at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1638.

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of having them copied by hand, and the "Boston News-Letter," which came into existence in this way, was published until the Revolution. The patriot leaders in the Revolutionary times made the fullest use of the newspapers to bring the people to their way of thinking.

138. **Summary.** — The thirteen colonies in 1763 extended from the Penobscot to the St. Mary's. Their governments were similar, except that in some the governors were appointed by the king; in others were elected by the voters. Intercolonial communication was very poor, and was mostly by sailing vessels. Many foreigners, especially Germans, came over to the Middle Colonies, and smaller numbers to the others. Irish Presbyterians also migrated to Pennsylvania and the Southern Colonies. Most of the colonists were farmers or planters, but many of them, especially in New England and the Middle Colonies, were engaged in shipping and commerce. The entire population was about one and one-half million. There were a few large towns, but most of the people lived in the country. In the South, negro slaves did most of the hard work on the plantations, and there were a few slaves in the Northern Colonies. There was much more liberality in religious matters than in the earlier period. Schools and colleges had everywhere been established and were educating the people as were also the newspapers.

ENGLAND TAXES THE COLONISTS

139. **The colonists at the close of the French War.** — After the conquest of Canada, the English colonists were happier than they had ever been before, for now there was no longer any danger of French attack. They were glad that they were members of the greatest empire[1] in the

[1] The British Empire included Great Britain (England, Scotland, and Wales), Ireland, the Channel Islands, Gibraltar and Malta in the Mediterra-

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world and proud to be subjects of the British king. Only three years later (1766), they were on the edge of rebellion. The reason for this change of feeling was that England attempted to raise money by levying taxes on the colonists, without asking their consent.[1]

140. Taxing colonial commerce. — There had been laws regulating colonial commerce for more than one hundred years;[2] but these had never been enforced. The most important of these old laws was one that had been passed in 1733 for the "protection"[3] of the sugar growers of the English West India Islands at the expense of the people of the continental colonies. This law was intended to make it impossible for the continental colonists to trade with the French West Indies and to make them buy all their sugar and molasses from the English planters. Nobody had paid much attention to it, and the colonists had built up a great and prosperous trade with the foreign islands. George Grenville was now prime minister. He proposed to tax more goods imported into the colonies and

nean, large possessions in India, many West India Islands, and the North American Colonies. Already, it was an empire on which the sun never set. The people living in the different parts of the Empire had very different duties to perform and very different ways of thinking about their relations with the British Parliament and the British king. The American Revolution was the result of this lack of understanding.

[1] The object of this taxation was to lessen the burdens of English taxpayers. Their expenses had been greatly increased by the wars with France; and the cost of governing the conquered French colonies was certain to be heavy for years to come.

[2] These laws were designed to confine the commerce of the British Empire to vessels owned and navigated by British subjects and to secure to English merchants the profits of handling the important colonial products. This policy was not unlike that of the United States at this moment, for only American vessels are allowed to trade between United States ports, including those of Porto Rico, the Philippines, and the Hawaiian Islands.

[3] An industry is said to be "protected" when a law is passed which increases the price of imported goods by means of a tax, so that the producers at home can make goods of the same kind and sell them in competition with goods that are made more cheaply in foreign countries.

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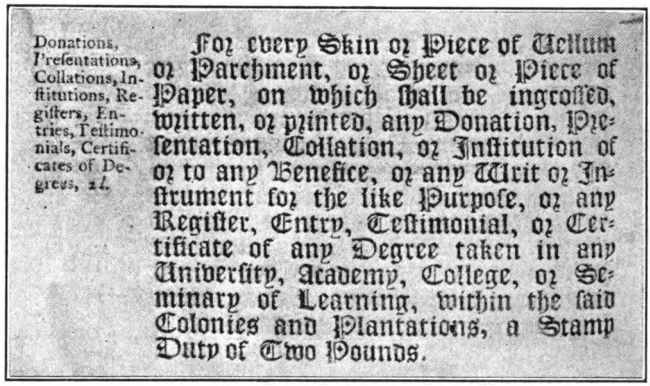
then to enforce the law. Had it been possible to carry out his ideas, the most important commerce of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania would have been destroyed.

141. The Stamp Act. — Following Grenville's lead, Parliament passed still another act. This was the Stamp Act, (March, 1765). According to this law, every colonist must do his most important legal writing on specially prepared paper which was sold by the government and bore


Donations, Presentations, Collations, Institutions, Registers, Entries, Testimonials, Certificates of Degrees, 2 l.

For every Skin or Piece of Vellum or Parchment, or Sheet or Piece of Paper, on which shall be ingrossed, written, or printed, any Donation, Presentation, Collation, or Institution of or to any Benefice, or any Writ or Instrument for the like Purpose, or any Register, Entry, Testimonial, or Certificate of any Degree taken in any University, Academy, College, or Seminary of Learning, within the said Colonies and Plantations, a Stamp Duty of Two Pounds.

A Paragraph of the Stamp Act.

the government stamp.[1] The stamp was sometimes impressed on the paper; but sometimes a separate stamp was affixed to the document. Not only were law papers, such as wills and deeds of lands, taxed in this way, but every graduate of a college was to buy a thirty dollar stamp to put on his degree; and the printer of every newspaper was to pay a stamp tax of two cents for each copy that he printed.

142. The Stamp Act resisted. — The colonists at once realized that they were to be taxed by Parliament when-

[1] For this stamped paper the colonist was obliged to pay a higher price than he would have paid for ordinary paper; the extra money went to the government as a tax or stamp duty.

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ever they used a bit of stamped paper or bought a stamp. They determined to resist, because they felt that they were already taxed heavily enough by their colonial assemblies and by the counties and towns in which they lived. Everywhere there was excitement. In Boston, the townspeople visited the stamp distributor, tore down a building which he had put up for an office, and compelled him to resign his office. A mob also visited the house of Thomas

A Stamp. (Instead of being pasted on to the paper, a little piece of copper or brass was used to fasten the stamp to the paper and the piece marked "267" was pasted over the back of the bit of copper or brass to protect the other sheets of paper or parchment.)

Hutchinson, the lieutenant-governor and chief justice. They destroyed his furniture and burned up his books and papers.

143. **Patrick Henry's resolutions, 1765.** — In Virginia Patrick Henry[1] took the lead. He moved a set of resolutions in the assembly, declaring that Virginians could be

[1] Patrick Henry was born in Virginia on May 29, 1736. After trying several callings unsuccessfully, he became a lawyer, and at once prospered. In 1763, he argued for the colonists the Parson's Cause, by which the ministers tried to compel their colonial employers to pay them more money than was required by a Virginia law that had been vetoed by the king at their request. He declared that the veto of a good law was an act of tyranny, and that the Virginians were not obliged to pay any attention to it. He was the first governor of the state of Virginia. After the Revolution, he opposed the ratification of the Constitution, but, when it was adopted, supported Washington. He died in 1799.

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taxed only by their own representatives, and that every attempt to tax them in any other way was unjust, illegal, unconstitutional, and destructive of the liberty of British subjects. These resolutions were printed in the newspapers throughout the colonies. They excited the people to renewed opposition to the Stamp Act, and were called the "alarm bell of the Revolution."

Patrick Henry.

144. The Stamp Act Congress, 1765. — In October, 1765, representatives from nine colonies met at New York in a general congress. Other colonies, as Virginia, would have sent representatives to the meeting, had their legislatures been in session. As it was, this congress is very important in American history, because it was the first time that representatives from many colonies had gathered together without being summoned by order of the king or the colonial governors. It drew up a Declaration of Rights, stating that the colonies were entitled to the same rights as the people of England, and were not subject to taxation by Parliament, because they were not represented in that body. These ideas were held by nearly every one in the colonies, but this was the first time that they had been stated at a general meeting.

145. Parliament repeals the Stamp Act, 1766. — George III was now king of England, and had been since 1760.

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He took a serious view of his kingly duties, and interfered more actively in the carrying on of the government than any English monarch had done for half a century. He was very industrious, and had a high idea of his own rights. He fully approved of Grenville's method of getting money from the colonists, but he did not like some other things that Grenville did. So he turned him out of office, and gave the management of affairs to a different set of men. The new ministers were very weak in Parliament, and very anxious for the aid of William Pitt. That great statesman was no longer in office, and had not been for five years, but he had a few very devoted followers whose votes were needed by the ministers. Coming to the House of Commons, Pitt made a fiery speech, in which he denounced Grenville and his plan of taxing the colonists. The new ministers were at their wits' end as to what should be done with the Stamp Act. As the stamp distributors had been compelled to resign, there was no one in America who had any authority to sell the stamps or the stamped paper, if any colonists had been willing to buy them. All the accounts that came from America showed that the colonists were violently opposed to direct taxation by act of Parliament. Benjamin Franklin was then in London. He was summoned before the House of Commons, and declared that the colonists would never submit to the Stamp Act, no matter how small the duties might be made, unless they were compelled by force of arms. Either the act must be repealed, or an army sent to America to enforce it. Under these circumstances the safest and easiest thing to do was to follow Mr. Pitt's advice and repeal it in every part, and this was done.

146. Parliament declares its rights, 1766. — Another part of Mr. Pitt's advice was not so favorable to the colonists, for, although he advised the total repeal of the

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Stamp Act, he also suggested that Parliament should pass a law declaring that it had the power to legislate for America in all cases whatsoever, including, of course, taxation. Following him, therefore, Parliament passed the Declaratory Act (1766), stating that it was the supreme legislative body of the empire. This act was full of trouble for the future; but, for the present, the colonists were grateful to Parliament for repealing the Stamp Act. They thought that Pitt had befriended them and erected statues of him, and procured his portrait.

147. **Summary.** — The colonists were contented in 1763. The English government tried to raise money from them by taxing their commerce and making them pay stamp duties. They resisted the Stamp Act so vigorously that it was repealed. Patrick Henry's Resolutions in Virginia stated the side of the colonists. The Declaratory Act passed by Parliament stated the views of the English government.

ENGLISH SOLDIERS IN THE COLONIES

148. **Enforcing the customs laws.** — Although the Stamp Act was a failure, Parliament soon returned to the idea of getting money from the colonists without asking their consent. It lowered the rates on sugar and molasses, so that these duties would no longer be prohibitory, but might bring in a revenue. Then it laid new duties on all kinds of paper, on painter's colors, glass, and tea imported into the colonies. If all of these duties could be collected in America, taxes in England might be considerably reduced, — an idea that was very pleasing to the members of the House of Commons and also to the peers who sat in the House of Lords. To make it more likely that the duties would be collected, it was decided to establish a Board of Customs

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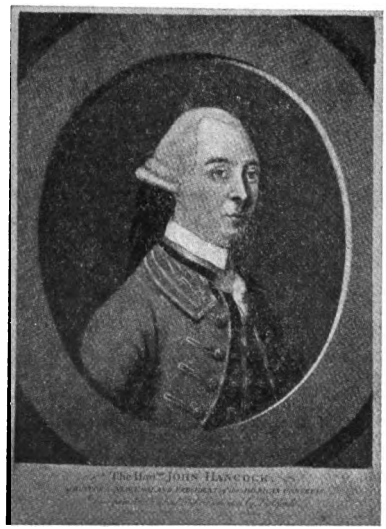
Commissioners in America who would have the direct oversight of the collectors and other customs officials, and, being on the spot, would be more likely to compel these men to carry out the laws. The headquarters of the new board were established at Boston, and they soon stirred the customs officers to collect the duties.

149. Seizure of the sloop *Liberty*, 1768. — This vessel belonged to John Hancock, a rich and popular merchant of Boston. Being informed that Madeira wine had been smuggled in on board the *Liberty*, the collector of customs ordered her to be seized by men from a British man-of-war that was anchored in Boston Harbor. A number of persons gathered at the wharf as her captors towed her away from the shore and anchored her under the guns of the warship. The Bostonians could not rescue her, so, instead, they seized a small yacht belonging to the collector of the customs, carried it up to Boston Common, broke it to pieces, and burned it up. They then marched to the houses of the customs officers and of the commissioners, broke the windows, and otherwise acted unpleasantly. The commissioners were so alarmed, or said they were, that they fled with their families to the man-of-war and afterwards to the fort in the harbor. They sent urgent entreaties to General Gage, the British commander in America, and to England for



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soldiers to protect them from the vengeance of the mob and enable them to collect the duties.

150. **English soldiers at New York.** — There were already several regiments of British soldiers stationed in the colonies. Most of them were at Halifax in Nova Scotia or elsewhere in Canada, but a few regiments, with the headquarters of the commander-in-chief, were at New York. It was necessary to have these soldiers, or some of them, in America to keep the subjugated French Canadians in order and to prevent the Indians on the northwestern frontier from attacking the settlers and the fur traders. Following the general idea of making the colonists pay for everything that they possibly could, Parliament passed a law ordering the several colonies to provide quarters for the soldiers stationed within their limits, and to supply them with certain articles of food. The people of New York thought that this was unfair, because at first that was the only place among the old English colonies where there were any soldiers.[1] They did not like the idea of being obliged to pay so much more than their regular share of the expense. They refused to provide some of the things called for, whereupon the government in England ordered the governor in New York to give his consent to no more acts of the colonial assembly until the legislature had first complied fully with the English demands.

151. **English soldiers at Boston.** — The condition of affairs was rather different at Boston. When the soldiers arrived there to support the customs officers, the Bostonians declared that the province had provided quarters for the soldiers within the fort or "Castle" on an island[2] in the

[1] New York was selected as the headquarters of the British army in America, because troops could easily be sent from that point up the Hudson to Canada, or to the western frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia, or southward by water to the Carolinas and Georgia.

[2] See map in § 166.

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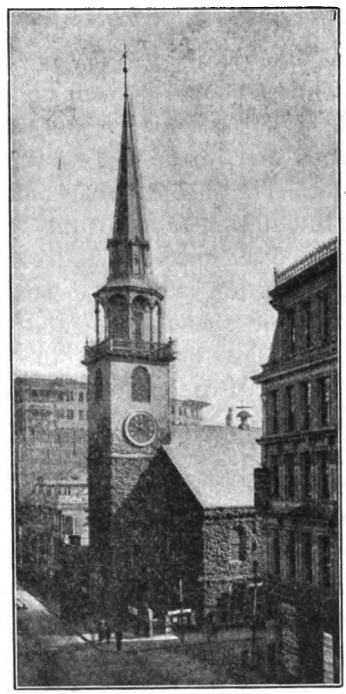
harbor and that until those barracks were fully occupied, they would not provide lodgings for the soldiers within the town. As the only object of having the soldiers in Massachusetts was to have them within the town of Boston itself to put down riots, their commander refused to take them down to the fort. He found shelter for them on the Common, in Faneuil Hall, and in other public buildings. He then applied to the authorities for the supplies which the act of Parliament required the colonists to furnish. They answered that they were only obliged to furnish supplies to the soldiers in the appointed quarters. So the coming of the troops only brought up new causes of irritation.



The Old South Meeting House.

152. **Boston Massacre, 1770.** — The Bostonians disliked this occupation of their buildings and the Common by British soldiers. For nearly a year and a half, there was no actual conflict between them. On the evening of Monday, March 5, 1770, a soldier who had made himself especially obnoxious was one of the sentries on King Street, now State Street, where the custom-house stood. A crowd gathered and began taunting the red-coated soldiers and throwing mud and snow at them. Finally, this particular soldier was knocked down. Then the guard opened fire, killing four of the

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townspeople and wounding several more. The bells in the churches were now rung as if for a fire. Multitudes hastened to the scene, and refused to return to their homes until the soldiers were ordered to their barracks. This being done, the officer who commanded the guard and the soldiers who had done the firing were arrested by the sheriff and placed in the town lock-up. The next day the people met at Faneuil Hall and demanded that the soldiers should be sent out of the town to the fort in the harbor; but the governor refused. Three or four thousand then met in the Old South Meeting House, chose a committee, at the head of which was Samuel Adams, to go to Hutchinson and tell him that all the soldiers must be removed at once or the consequences might be terrible. Hutchinson offered to send away one regiment, but all or none was the demand,—and all were moved to the fort. Two days later the victims of the massacre were buried. Fifteen or twenty thousand persons followed the bodies to the grave or watched the procession as it passed. No such crowd had ever been seen in Boston before.

153. **Custom duties removed, 1770.**—The soldiers had been sent to Boston to support the customs officers in collecting the revenue. At almost the very moment that the Boston Massacre was going on, ministers in England were removing all these duties except the tax on tea. The head of the government was now Lord North. He was a very able, witty, good-tempered man, who was quite willing to do whatever the king wished, so long as he could enjoy the opportunities for making money that the office of prime minister then afforded. He would like to have removed all the duties, but the king said that one must be retained to show the right of Parliament to tax the colonists, and therefore the duty on tea was continued.

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154. **Summary.** — The English government next tried to enforce the customs laws. The seizure of the sloop *Liberty* at Boston aroused so much excitement that soldiers were sent there to protect the people. The soldiers and the Bostonians came to blows in the Boston Massacre. All but one of the obnoxious duties were removed; but the tax on tea was kept.

THE UNITED COLONIES

155. **Burning of the *Gaspee*, 1772.** — It was not only on land but also on the sea that the attempt to collect duties by act of Parliament brought on trouble. The commissioners of the customs at Boston had fitted out several armed vessels to cruise along the coast and seize ships that were engaged in disobeying the laws. One of these revenue vessels was the *Gaspee*. Her cruising ground was Narragansett Bay and other Rhode Island waters. Her captain and crew in one way, or another, won the active enmity of the Rhode Islanders. Great was the rejoicing at Providence when news was brought that the *Gaspee* was hard and fast aground, not very far away. Boat loads of men at once proceeded down to where she lay, boarded her, not without fighting, set the crew on shore, and burned the vessel to the water's edge. This insult to the British navy aroused the authorities. Orders were sent to America that a most thorough inquiry should be held and the perpetrators of this outrage should be taken out of Rhode Island for trial elsewhere. Not one of them could be found, because no one would tell who did it. But the threat to take colonists away from their homes to be tried for their lives was enough to renew the spirit of antagonism.

156. **The Virginia Resolves, 1773.** — Not only in New England was the resentment keen; in Virginia the leaders looked upon the orders of the British government

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with especial abhorrence. Under the leadership of Thomas Jefferson and Patrick Henry, the Virginia Assembly passed a series of resolutions condemning the idea of taking a man away from Rhode Island, or any other colony, for trial in England or in any other part of America.[1] They also proposed that each colony should appoint a committee of correspondence, so that in the future all the colonists might know just what was going on in the other colonies, and all might act together.

157. **The Boston Tea Party, 1773.** — The English East India Company had a great quantity of tea in its English warehouses, much more than there would be any sale for in England for a long time. It owed a great deal of money. To help it out of its difficulties, Lord North arranged that the company might send its tea to the American colonies for sale there without paying any duties in England, provided the colonists would pay the tax of threepence per pound as the act of Parliament required. In this way, the colonists would get their tea a good deal cheaper than did the people in England, and perhaps this would make them willing to pay the duty; but the plan did not work as Lord North expected.

Throughout the colonies everywhere, without any stirring from their leaders, the people determined to foil this attempt to bribe them into acknowledging the supremacy of Parliament. When the tea ships appeared in the harbors of New York and Philadelphia, the captains and owners agreed to carry the tea back to England. At Charleston, South Carolina, the tea was stored in a warehouse on shore, where it was safely kept until after the Declaration of Independence, when it was sold for the benefit of the people of South Carolina. At Boston, the

[1] It had long been a rule of English law that an accused person had a right to be tried by a jury who lived in his own part of the country.

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owners of the ships would have been very glad to have carried the tea back to England even if no freight money had been paid on it, but the governor, the collector, and the admiral of the British fleet stationed in the harbor were all determined that the act of Parliament and the customs regulations should be carried out to the letter. The Bostonians would have rejoiced to have had the tea carried away peaceably. As this could not be done, two hundred of them clothed in blankets like Indians, with their faces stained copper color, and armed with tomahawks, went on board the three ships that had tea as part of their cargoes. They hoisted out the tea chests, smashed them open, and threw them over the sides of the ships to float away with the tide.

158. Closing the port of Boston, 1774. — In Massachusetts, John Adams thought that this was one of the most sublime incidents that ever happened. In London, Benjamin Franklin regarded it as outrageous and even offered to pay for the tea out of his own pocket. The king and Lord North went beyond Franklin and determined to punish the people of the riotous town, unless they paid the East India Company for its losses. To this end, Parliament passed an act closing the port of Boston until the claims of the tea merchants were satisfied. As the people of Boston and Massachusetts were likely to resist this punishment, Parliament by another act suspended the charter of Massachusetts Bay and the king confided the government of that province to General Gage, the commander-in-chief of the military forces in America. The British fleet at Boston also was reënforced. The stoppage of trade and commerce caused great suffering to the people of Boston. The other colonies at once took up the cause of the distressed inhabitants of the doomed town and forwarded them supplies and money.

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159. The First Continental Congress, 1774. — The demand was now widespread for the holding of a general congress and one met at Philadelphia, in September, 1774. All the colonies were represented. Virginia, especially, sent a remarkable delegation, including George Washington and Patrick Henry. From Massachusetts there were the Adamses, John and Samuel; and from New York, John Jay, who was afterwards the first Chief Justice of the United States. Indeed, all the ablest men on the side of those who opposed the claims of Parliament attended this congress, excepting Benjamin Franklin, who was then in England, and Thomas Jefferson, who was not elected by the Virginians. The principal work of this Congress was the establishment of the American Association, which was designed to secure the carrying out of a complete boycott of English merchants by refusing to import anything from that country or send anything to it.[1] The plan was to elect committees in every county and town in the several colonies who should see to it that no one disobeyed the commands of the Congress.

160. Enforcement of the Association. — The earlier non-importation agreements had not been carried out very completely, but this one was ruthlessly enforced. In Virginia, for instance, in each county, a committee was appointed to see to it that merchants obeyed the "laws of Congress" and Independent Companies of militiamen were formed, comprising only men who were in favor of resistance. If one of these committees suspected that a Virginia merchant was selling goods that had been imported after the dates fixed in the Association, they would visit him, examine his books,

[1] There had been several earlier non-importation schemes, one at the time of the Stamp Act and another as a protest against the duties on paper, paint, glass, and tea; but this was the first complete cessation of trade with Great Britain.

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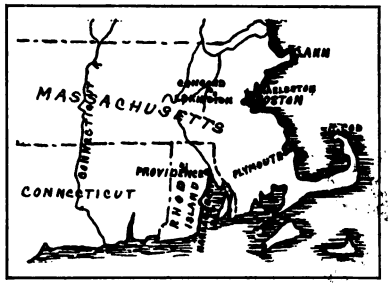
and give such orders as they saw fit, which would then be carried out by the Independent Company, if the use of force was necessary. Thereupon, the English government forbade the Pennsylvanians, Virginians, and South Carolinians to trade with the New Englanders. The king declared Massachusetts to be in a state of rebellion and sent over more soldiers to enable General Gage to crush the rebels.

161. Gage's plan. — The winter of 1774–1775 was quiet enough at Boston. It was difficult to feed the soldiers and keep them warm and they had very little to eat, but no attacks were made upon them. On the other hand, it was quite certain that it was dangerous for them to go into the country, except in large bodies. Gage sent spies to find out what the colonists were doing and to discover where they kept their provisions, guns, and ammunition. These spies learned that quantities of such supplies had been collected at Concord and Gage decided to seize them. News of his intention somehow got to the ears of Dr. Joseph Warren, a Boston physician, and one of the members of the Committee of Safety.[1] He at once sent out messengers to warn the people of Concord, Lexington, and other towns along the way of Gage's intentions. The most famous of these riders was Paul Revere who had already often acted as messenger in times of need. He now arranged for two lanterns to be placed in the tower of



[1] The committees of safety in the several colonies or states directed the movements of the troops and in general conducted the resistance to royal officials, until regular state governments were organized.

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the Old North Church to warn the people of Charlestown that the British had left Boston by water, and this being done had himself rowed across to Charlestown. His friends there had already seen the signals, and borrowing a horse, he set out on his midnight ride to Lexington and Concord.[1]

162. Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775. — Meanwhile, the British had been ferried across from Boston and

Battle of Lexington.

started on their long march. As they proceeded, the ringing of bells in the dead of the night warned them that their coming was known. Just before sunrise they reached the green, or common, at Lexington, where a company of minute-men[2] was assembled. As these did not get out of the way fast enough to suit them, the British fired, killing and wounding several of the provincial soldiers. They then pressed on to Concord. There they destroyed a few

[1] Longfellow's poem, "Paul Revere's Ride," splendidly expresses the spirit of 1775; but does not follow the facts as Paul Revere stated them. The above account is from Revere's own letter.

[2] Minute-men were so named because they were supposed to be ready to respond at a minute's notice.

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barrels of flour, some wheels that had been made for moving artillery, and threw some powder and ball into the river. While the British were thus occupied, the militia had been arriving in large numbers, not only from Concord, but from the towns round about. Before the "red-coats"[1] started on their return journey, they were attacked and as soon as they got clear of the town they were fired at from every stone wall, bit of woods, or building on either side of the road. Faster and faster the British retreated until finally they reached Lexington thoroughly exhausted. There they were delighted to find Earl Percy with more British troops and two pieces of artillery; for had it not been for this succor the whole detachment would probably have been killed or captured. As it was, when they started again, the sharp shooting began from every vantage point and continued until they gained the shelter of the British fleet anchored off the wharves of Charlestown. The pursuing Americans assembled for the night at Cambridge and began the siege or blockade of Boston.

163. **Summary.** — The colonists burned the *Gaspee*, a vessel employed in enforcement of the acts of Parliament. The English set on foot an investigation into this affair. This induced the Virginians to advise the appointment of Committees of Correspondence. The colonists resisted the attempt to bribe them into paying the tax on tea. At Boston, the tea was thrown into the water. Parliament punished that town by closing it to commerce. The first Continental Congress established a complete cessation of commerce with English merchants. April 19, 1775, British soldiers and American colonists began the war at Lexington and Concord.

[1] The British soldiers wore bright colored clothing. Some of the soldiers that went to Concord wore three-cornered cocked hats bound with white lace, scarlet coats faced with bright yellow, scarlet waistcoats and white linen gaiters. The minute-men were in their everyday clothes.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

England and her Colonies, 1763–1775

- **The Thirteen Colonies in 1763**
  - *Extent of Settlement.*
  - *Governments.*
  - *Intercolonial Communication.*
  - *Coming of the Foreigners*
    - The Germans.
    - The Presbyterians from Ireland.
  - *Occupations*
    - New England.
    - Middle Colonies.
    - Southern Colonies.
  - *Population.*
  - *Negro Slaves.*
  - *Religion.*
  - *Schools and Colleges.*
  - *Newspapers.*
- **England taxes the Colonists**
  - *Colonists at Close of French and Indian Wars.*
  - *Taxing Colonial Commerce.*
  - *The Stamp Act, 1765*
    - Patrick Henry's Resolutions.
    - Stamp Act Congress.
    - Repeal of Act, 1766.
  - *Parliament declares its Rights, 1766.*
- **The English Soldiers in Colonies**
  - *Enforcing the Customs Laws.*
  - *Seizure of the Sloop "Liberty," 1768.*
  - *English Soldiers at*
    - New York.
    - Boston — Boston Massacre, 1770.
  - *Customs Duties Removed.*
- **The United Colonies**
  - *Burning of the "Gaspee," 1772.*
  - *Virginia Resolves, 1773.*
  - *Boston Tea Party, 1773.*
  - *Boston Port Bill, 1774.*
  - *First Continental Congress, 1774.*
  - *Enforcement of American Association*
  - *Gage's Plan.*
  - *Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775.*

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VI

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

BUNKER HILL TO TRENTON, 1775–1776

164. **The chances of victory.** — England with her trained armies, abundant supplies of guns and ammunition, and great sums of money seemed to have the advantage in the coming conflict. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the colonies were three thousand miles[1] away and that the French Wars had left them a united people somewhat skilled in the art of war. To be sure, the colonists had scarcely any money and few supplies; but the extent of the scene of action greatly helped them. The British could capture a city — New York, Philadelphia, or Charleston — but it required so many soldiers to hold one of them that there were not enough British soldiers left to conquer more towns or to occupy a large part of a colony. The colonies produced food and hay in abundance, but the British found it very difficult to buy these supplies from the inhabitants and actually had to bring most of the food and hay that they needed from England. Under these conditions it was impossible to maintain a large force of soldiers and horses in America.

[1] Nowadays with a great steamer carrying two thousand people and going from fifteen to twenty-five miles an hour, crossing the Atlantic is a slight matter. In 1775, of a fleet of eighteen sailing vessels sent from England with supplies for the army at Boston, only three had reached their destination, six months later. The following winter, therefore, the British troops and Tories at Boston had little to eat except beans and salt meat.

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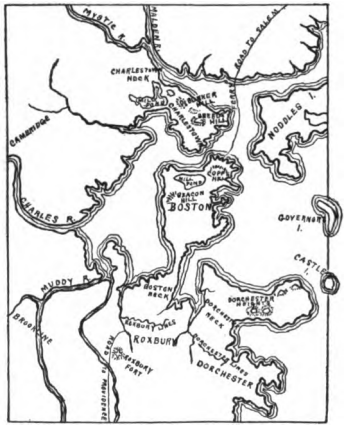
165. The Hessians. — The American war was so unpopular in England that soldiers could be got only by the payment of large sums of money, — much more than King George wished to spend, — so he was forced to hire foreign troops. The largest body of these came from the little German state of Hesse, so that all of them are known as Hessians, whether they actually came from there or from other parts of Germany. The employment of the Hessians was a great mistake for England. As long as the fighting was between British and American soldiers, it was a family affair; but when the king hired the Germans to fight his battles, the Americans in turn thought of getting aid from foreigners likewise.



166. Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775. — For a couple of months after the Concord and Lexington fight the Americans remained quietly encamped round about Boston, and the British remained equally quiet in the town itself. In the middle of June, both sides prepared to make a new start. The Americans moved first. During the night of June 16–17, a party of them under Colonel Prescott built a redoubt[1] on top of one of the Charlestown hills. When day dawned and the British at Boston and on the ships lying in the harbor saw what had happened in the night, they were startled. Gage at once made up his mind to at-

[1] This redoubt was actually built on Breed's Hill, but the battle is always known as Bunker Hill for that was the point which was first thought of for the fortification. Breed's Hill is really a part of Bunker Hill.

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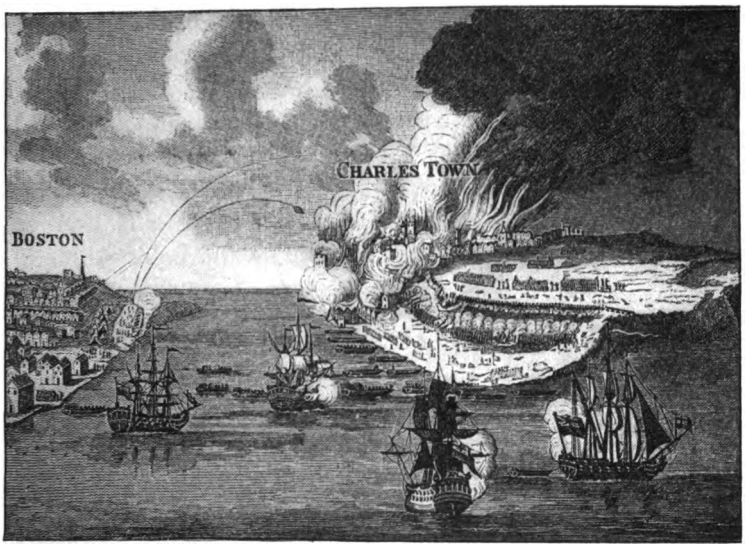
tack the fortifications. He appointed General Sir William Howe to command the attacking party and ordered him to pursue the rebels into the country beyond. It was noon before the British were ferried across. Each man had with him a blanket and food for several days. As they marched up the hill, they had to cross ploughed land and



Battle of Bunker Hill.

climb stone walls and fences, so that their progress was slow. It was eagerly watched by the soldiers in the redoubt and by others who had since come up and stationed themselves behind a fence that extended almost the whole way from the fort across the peninsula. These had constructed a breastwork by putting up another fence about a dozen feet away and filling the space in between with hay from the fields round about. As the British came on, there ran along the American lines, the command:

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"Don't fire! Wait until you see the whites of their eyes!" "Pick off the officers!" "Aim at the handsome coats!" Suddenly fire blazed all along the American front; the British went down in heaps. Some of them reached the first rail fence and even climbed over it, but they did not walk very long waist deep in hay with the Americans only ten feet away. Back went those that could. They re-formed and again came on, — with the same result. There was now a halt, while more soldiers were brought over from Boston. Some reënforcements and a little food and ammunition came to the Americans, but a British vessel firing across the isthmus that connected Charlestown with the mainland made communication with the rest of the army difficult and even dangerous. When reënforcements had at last come to the British, they charged for the third time. They could no longer be withstood by the Americans because there was no ammunition in the redoubt and not much at the rail fence. Joseph Warren, who had joined Prescott as a volunteer, was killed at this time and so were others; but most of the Americans escaped over Bunker Hill and by the isthmus to the mainland. The British lost from one thousand to fifteen hundred men, killed, wounded, and missing, and the Americans only four hun-

Prescott Statue, Bunker Hill.

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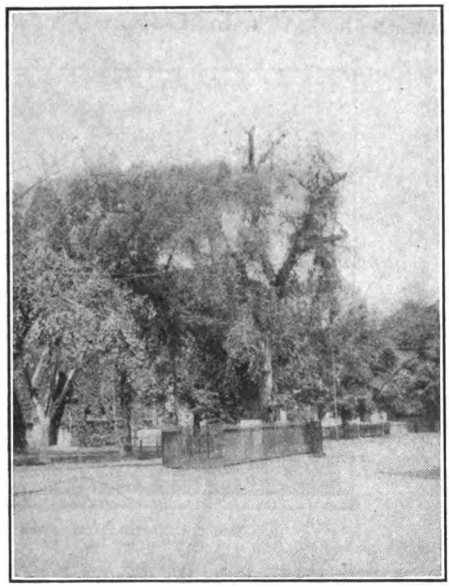
dred. No wonder General Greene declared that he would be glad to sell other hills to the British on the same terms. Nor is it to be wondered at that the British themselves after this kept close to Boston and to Bunker Hill.

167. Second Continental Congress meets, May 10, 1775. — Another Continental Congress met at Philadelphia between the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill. It at once declared that the cause of Massachusetts was the cause of all the colonies. It adopted the army before Boston as its own and appointed George Washington commander-in-chief. He hastened to Boston and assumed control of the blockade of that town on July 3, 1775.[1] Congress also issued a declaration as to the reason for taking up arms, and drew up a last petition to the king to interfere on their behalf. This was called the "olive branch" because it was looked upon by the colonists as the last chance for peace. Congress also began the formation of a little



The Washington Elm.

[1] Local tradition states that he took command under a venerable elm tree hard by the common at Cambridge. His first official act, as commander-in-chief, was in writing a letter to General Schuyler directing him to defend certain positions. This letter was dated at the city of New York, on June 26.

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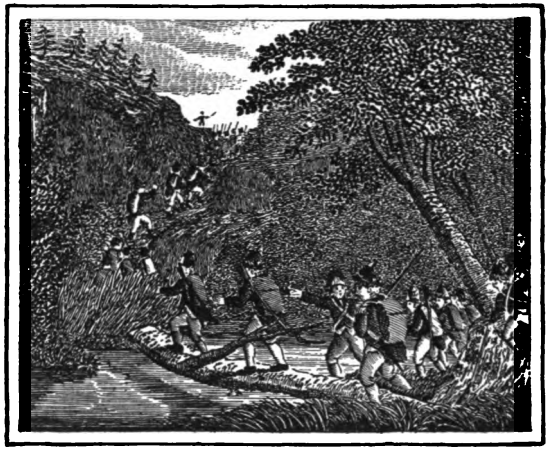
navy and issued paper money to pay the soldiers, and to buy food and clothing for them.

168. The Canada expedition, 1775–1776. — In May, 1775, Ethan Allen at the head of men from Vermont, western Massachusetts, and Connecticut seized the forts at Ticonderoga and Crown Point[1] on Lake Champlain. These contained great quantities of guns and military stores which had remained there since the last French war.



Arnold's March through the Wilderness.

The capture of these posts also opened the way to Canada. A large party in Congress thought that the French Canadians would be glad to throw off the English yoke and become independent, and perhaps join the United Colonies. The plan was for two armies to invade Canada; one going by the way of Lake Champlain and the other marching northward through Maine. The two meeting at Quebec would capture that place with its English garrison. The commander of the latter force was Benedict Arnold, a most

[1] See the map in § 179.

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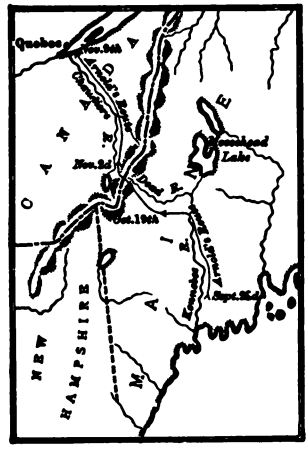
enterprising and dashing soldier from Connecticut. The march of this force turned out to be full of suffering and danger, and it reached Quebec too late to take the fortress by surprise. The other expedition, led by Richard Montgomery, an Irish soldier, who threw in his lot with the colonists, joined Arnold and together they attacked Quebec. The assault was made at night while a terrific storm of drifting snow and sleet was raging, and was an utter failure. Montgomery was killed and Arnold badly wounded. Nevertheless, the Americans kept up a blockade of the town throughout the winter. In the spring of 1776, an army of British and Hessians came from England, drove away the Americans who had been besieging Quebec and another army which came to their relief. The Americans retired first up the St. Lawrence and then down to Ticonderoga. The British followed them there, but did not recapture the fort, and went back to Canada late in the autumn of 1776. The result of the invasion of Canada was, therefore, very disappointing. The French Canadians had been treated so well by their British conquerors and remembered so keenly their former conflicts with the New Yorkers and New Englanders that they proved to be of very little service to the Americans.



Arnold's March.

169. British attack Charleston, South Carolina, 1776.—The Loyalists,[1] as all the reports that reached England as

[1] The Loyalists were Americans who did not approve of fighting the English soldiers or of declaring the colonies to be independent states.

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to affairs in the South stated, were very numerous in the Carolinas, and were determined to aid the English. A combined fleet and army under General Sir Henry Clinton and Commodore Sir Peter Parker sailed for the conquest of these two colonies. They first put in at Cape Fear River in North Carolina, where they expected to be joined by a large body of Scottish colonists who had settled in North Carolina. More than a thousand of these took up arms for the British, but they were defeated by the colonial militia, and Clinton met with so much resistance, when he tried to land, that he put his men on shipboard again and sailed for Charleston, South Carolina. The people were ready for him there, too. Under lead of the South Carolina general, Moultrie (Mōl'trĭ), they had built a fort of palmetto[1] logs and sand on the end of Sullivan's Island, where the channel from the sea runs close to the shore. They named it Fort Moultrie for their general. Clinton landed his soldiers on the next island, but when he tried to cross over to attack the Americans, sharp-shooters on the end of Sullivan's Island drove his men back. The fleet also found that the fort was a formidable affair. The naval cannon balls imbedded themselves in the palmetto logs or in the ground without doing any injury; while the shot from the fort crashed into the wooden hulls. The fleet turned round and sailed out again. The soldiers were re-embarked, and the whole expedition steered for the North.

170. The evacuation of Boston, March 17, 1776. — Meantime the blockade of Boston was going on. The British did not show much activity even after Gage had been ordered to England to explain the affair at Bunker Hill and the command had fallen to Sir William Howe. There were really too few British soldiers to do more than man the defences of the town. Washington on his part also had

[1] Păl-mĕt'tō, a kind of palm growing in southern United States.

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great difficulties. His men were mostly militiamen[1] who had no wish to become professional soldiers. In the winter, indeed, he was obliged to make over his army, while maintaining a bold front to the enemy. Another thing that troubled him was the lack of guns with which to bombard

Ethan Allen at Ticonderoga.

the British lines and powder and ball to use in them. Under Washington's direction Colonel Glover of Marblehead armed some fishing vessels and sent them out to capture British ships which were bringing guns and ammunition to Boston. This they soon did. Then, in the winter, some of the guns that Ethan Allen had captured at Ticonderoga were hauled over the snow and placed in the lines before Boston. All was ready in March, 1776. Washington seized Dorchester Heights, which overlooked the town and anchorage. Howe at once put his men in boats to drive

[1] Militiamen are citizen soldiers who drill from time to time, but do not expect to be called into actual service except in emergencies, as, for instance, in guarding people and property in case of a great conflagration or some other dire necessity.

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the Americans away, as he had done at Bunker Hill, but a furious storm came up and gave the Americans time to make their position so strong that it would have been folly to have attacked it. Nothing else could be done, except to leave the town. On March 17, the British fleet with the soldiers and about a thousand Loyalists left the anchorage off the wharves, dropped down to the lower harbor, and soon afterwards sailed for Halifax. From that time on, there was no more serious fighting in eastern New England except in Rhode Island.

171. **Independence Proposed.** — The olive branch petition produced no more effect on King George than had any of the earlier prayers of the colonists for justice. He would not even read it. Instead, he declared the colonists rebels and proclaimed war against them. This last British act convinced many people in the colonies who had hitherto been doubtful as to independence that the time had now come to take the step. The hiring of the Hessians also brought many to this opinion, and justified them in appealing to foreigners for aid. It was very unlikely that France or Holland or any other country would join them until they stated definitely that they were independent and meant to remain so. Even in July, 1776, many patriots did not think that the time had yet come for declaring independence, although they were fighting hard against the English for what they considered to be their rights. The opposition to declaring the United States a separate nation was especially strong in Pennsylvania and New York. The delegates from the latter did not give the consent of their state until the middle of July.

172. **Declaration of Independence Adopted, July 4, 1776.** — The movement for declaring independence came from Virginia, and the task of drawing up the declaration was given to Thomas Jefferson, who had succeeded Washington as a

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delegate from that state. Jefferson had already set forth the grievances of the colonists in some instructions which he proposed should be given to the Virginia delegates in the first Continental Congress, and he had just written a declaration of independence for his own state. He had the matter so much on his mind and remembered so well the state declaration that he had just written that he was able to sit down without notes or books and produce the immortal Declaration of Independence in almost exactly the same words in which it was adopted by Congress and exists to this day. The first two paragraphs of this great statement of the rights of human kind should be learned by every boy and girl (see Appendix), and always kept in mind by every one who has to do with the government of the country.[1]

173. **The Declaration Signed, August, 1776.** — The Declaration was adopted on July 4, 1776, but it was not signed until the following August, except that a few copies were printed and sent to the state governors and the commander-in-chief under the signatures of John Hancock and Charles Thompson, president and secretary of Congress. It was received with great rejoicing by the revolutionists. John Adams, then in Congress at Philadelphia, wrote to his wife at Braintree, near Boston, that the declaring of independence ought to be annually celebrated as long as the nation lived "with pomp and parade, with shows, games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires, and illuminations, from one end of the continent to the other."

174. **The Loyalists.** — The Americans were not all of one mind in opposing the government of England before

[1] The only important sentence that was in Jefferson's original declaration and was not accepted by Congress contained a fiery denunciation of the British king for forcing slaves upon the colonists. This was omitted to please the South Carolinians.

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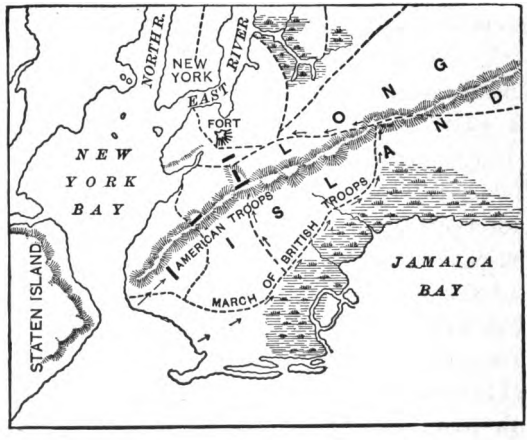
the war began, or in fighting British soldiers after Lexington and Concord. The Declaration of Independence also drove many of them over to the British side. In the early days the opponents of the Revolutionary policy had been called Tories, but now this name was dropped and they were known as Loyalists. Some of them stayed on their farms and did nothing, one way or the other, but many of them enlisted in the British army and fought to the end of the war.[1]

175. Battle of Long Island, 1776. — As soon as the British ships sailed from Boston in March, Washington started for New York, with the greater part of his soldiers.



General Howe first went to Halifax, so that it was July before he and his army appeared before New York City. From a military point of view, this was the most important seaport on the Atlantic coast, since an army could go from there easily to New England or to the southward. As

[1] Ferguson's Riflemen, who were defeated at King's Mountain; Tarleton's Legion, which was with Cornwallis in the South; and the Queen's Rangers, which fought in Virginia, were the most famous Loyalist regiments.

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Boston was commanded by Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights, so New York was commanded by Brooklyn Heights on the western end of Long Island. To hold New York, Washington was obliged to fortify Brooklyn Heights; and to capture New York, Howe was obliged to drive the Americans away from their fortifications. It was August, 1776, before Howe[1] felt strong enough to land on Long Island. With one part of his army, he attacked an advanced body of the Americans which occupied high ground at some distance from their fort. With the rest of his soldiers, he marched across country in the middle of the night, and next morning suddenly thrust in between the advanced American force and the fort. He had so many more men than the Americans that most of their advanced force was captured. The British then marched to attack the fort; but Howe had no wish to try another Bunker Hill, so he withdrew his soldiers. Washington saw that he must extricate his men at all hazards. A storm and foggy weather gave him the opportunity. With assistance from other regiments, Colonel Glover and his Marblehead fishermen ferried the American soldiers across to Manhattan Island.

176. **Loss of New York City.** — A few weeks later, General Howe made his next move to land men on Manhattan Island, itself. To do this, he sent some warships so near to the shore that the Americans who were watching the landing-place ran away as fast as they could to avoid the cannon-balls from the frigates. Seeing them running, other soldiers also took to their heels. Many of these fugitives covered themselves with glory a day or two later at Harlem Heights, when they not only beat off the British, but drove them back for a mile or more. Washington had too

[1] While waiting, Hessian troops had come to his aid from Europe, and Clinton had joined him from his attack at Charleston, South Carolina.

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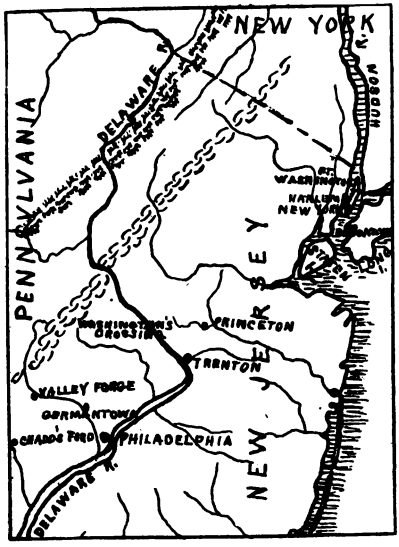
few men to hold New York against the outnumbering forces of the enemy. He sent part of his army up the Hudson to fortify the difficult positions along the river. With the rest, he crossed over to New Jersey and retreated from one place to another until he found himself across the Delaware River in Pennsylvania. The end of 1776 was the darkest period of the war. Most of the soldiers had been enlisted to serve until the end of the year. There was no money to be had, and without it a new army could not be placed in the field. In his place, any other man would have given way to despair; but the greater the danger, the better Washington fought. He determined to make one great effort to revive the spirits of the people and to deal a telling blow at the British army.



177. Trenton and Princeton. — The British posts at Trenton and Princeton were held by Hessian soldiers. Those at Trenton were vigilant, one-third of them being armed and on guard every night; but their commander had not built any forts to protect his men from a sudden attack. On Christmas night, 1776, Washington and his soldiers crossed the Delaware in open boats. The river was covered with ice, so that the men experienced the greatest fatigue in breaking a passage. They landed some miles above Trenton and marched by two separate roads to that town. A

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violent storm of snow and hail was raging, and it was all that the men could do to keep their muskets and powder dry. Washington would permit no delay. Suddenly the troops came across the enemy's outposts. The guards gave the alarm by firing their muskets, and then fled into the town, with the Americans close upon them. A few Hessians

Washington crossing the Delaware.

escaped over a bridge before it could be seized, but all the rest were taken. The sight of nearly one thousand of them marching through Philadelphia as prisoners aroused the greatest enthusiasm. Volunteers now came forward, and all were willing to follow wherever Washington led. In a few days he beat another British force at Princeton, January, 1777. He then posted his army in such a threatening position among the Jersey hills that the invaders withdrew from all their posts in the interior of that state.

178. Summary. — The conquest of the American colonies proved to be difficult, although the British govern-

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ment secured the aid of Hessian soldiers. The battle of Bunker Hill was fought, June 17, 1775. The second Continental Congress met and took the part of Massachusetts. An expedition to Canada nearly surprised Quebec, but failed. The British likewise failed in an attack on Charleston, South Carolina. March 17, 1776, the British evacuated Boston. July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted. The Loyalists weakened the American resistance. The British won the battle of Long Island and occupied New York City. Washington captured one thousand Hessians at Trenton, December 26, 1776.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE DELAWARE AND FOR THE HUDSON

179. The Plan of Campaign, 1777. — General Howe now saw plainly enough that he must have many more men if he was to hold New York, on the one hand, and conquer the American armies in the field, on the other. He wrote home to England that he needed seventeen thousand men. These could not be supplied from Europe, but the government thought that it could send General Burgoyne (Bûr-goin′) with seven or eight thousand men from the army in Canada to join Howe at New York. This army on its way could seize Albany and other important points on Lake Champlain and the Hudson River, and thus cut New England off from the rest of the rebellious colonies. A few thousand men also came to New York directly from Europe. Of course, it was a dangerous thing to send Burgoyne with so few men through the wilderness and down along the river where he might be attacked at any moment; but Howe thought that if he took his main army to Pennsylvania, Washington would have to follow him with the strongest American force and that this would make Burgoyne's task much easier and safer. Still other troops were expected

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from Europe, and when these should arrive, Clinton, whom he left behind at New York, could go up the Hudson to meet Burgoyne.

180. **Battle of Brandywine, 1777.** — At first, Howe tried to march across New Jersey to the Delaware, but he soon found that Washington was altogether too strong for him, there. So he embarked his army and sailed up Delaware Bay. It soon appeared that it would be very difficult, if not impossible, to land his army anywhere near Philadelphia. He then steered southward for Chesapeake Bay,[1] but it was nearly a month before his army began its march overland to the capital of Pennsylvania. General Howe found Washington posted at Brandywine Creek, where the road from the south crossed at Chadd's Ford. Instead of attacking the Americans in front, Howe sent Cornwallis with a strong force to cross the little river higher up, while the rest of his army confronted the Americans at the ford. Cornwallis marched through the wilderness by unfrequented roads and suddenly attacked the American right wing. For a time, the fighting was severe, and then Washington was obliged to retreat. From this point Howe marched unmolested to Philadelphia; but it was some time before the British captured the forts guarding the Delaware below that city, so that they could sail up and down the river undisturbed.

181. **Battle of Germantown, 1777.** — Washington could not prevent the British from taking possession of the Quaker city, but he made a determined attack on one of their advanced positions at Germantown. This attack was brilliantly planned, and might have been as successful as that at Trenton, had not a dense fog come down and prevented the attacking columns from seeing what the others were

[1] Ordinarily this voyage would take only a few days, but the weather at this time was so calm that for weeks the fleet could make no progress.

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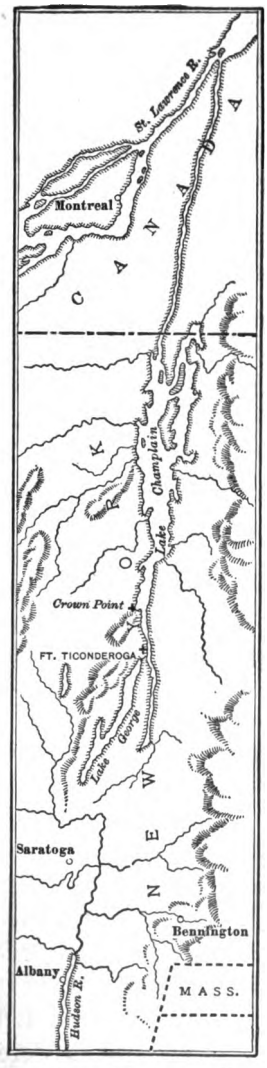

doing. At first everything went well. Some of the British did not retreat, but went into a strongly built stone house, and defended it. Instead of leaving a few men to occupy the attention of that party, the division that was advancing by that route halted to capture it. This threw the whole movement into confusion, and Washington reluctantly ordered the army to retire. After lingering awhile in the vicinity, he took his men up the Schuylkill (Skōōl′kĭl) to a strong position among the hills at Valley Forge, where they passed the following winter.

182. Battle of Bennington, 1777. — Proceeding southward from Canada, Burgoyne easily captured Ticonderoga and drove away the American forces there. When he reached the southern end of Lake Champlain, he found himself in serious difficulty. He was now a long way from his base of supplies in Canada, and the task of bringing food for his soldiers and ammunition for their guns was nearly impossible. Between him and the Hudson lay a wooded country where General Schuyler (Skī′lẹr), the American commander, by cutting down trees and breaking up the roads delayed Burgoyne so effectively that it took him weeks to go only a few miles. Not far to

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the east, at Bennington, were storehouses of food. Burgoyne sent a force of Hessian cavalrymen to seize these supplies and also to capture horses for their own use. When they neared Bennington, they saw groups of men gathering in the distance, but their guide assured them that these were Loyalists. The next morning, however, under the lead of General Stark, these supposed Loyalists and others attacked the Hessians and killed or captured them almost to a man. Meantime, Burgoyne had sent another detachment to the aid of the first. This body had marched so slowly that it, too, was defeated by the Americans.

183. **Battle of Oriskany, 1777.** — While Burgoyne was advancing southward from the St. Lawrence, Canadian frontiersmen and Indians were advancing toward Albany by the way of Lake Ontario and the Mohawk Valley. They expected to meet Burgoyne and march southward with him. Colonel Gansevoort (Găn′se-vōrt) commanded the garrison at Fort Schuyler, where the road from Lake Ontario ran into the Mohawk Valley. Gansevoort refused to surrender, and General Herkimer (Hĕr′kĭ-mẹr), with German frontiersmen from the settlements lower down the river, marched to the relief of the garrison. They fought a furious battle with the British Indians at Oriskany (O-ris′kā-ny), which was not far from Fort Schuyler. Both sides fought Indian fashion from behind trees until a terrible thunder-storm put an end to the conflict. Soon after the Indians became frightened at rumors of another body of Americans coming to attack them. They deserted, and the Canadians were obliged to abandon the siege of Fort Schuyler and go back to their homes. In this way Burgoyne was left to take care of himself without the men he had lost at Bennington and without the aid he had expected to reach him from Lake Ontario.

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184. The Saratoga Battles. — General Gates[1] was now in command of the army opposing Burgoyne. Crossing the Hudson, the British marched southward on the western side. For a time all went well, then suddenly, late one afternoon, one of their three columns was fiercely attacked at a clearing in the wilderness known by the name of Freeman's Farm. They halted there for the night, and never got any farther. For a few days, the two armies confronted each other, their positions being somewhat indistinct, owing to the wild character of the region. At length, one morning, Burgoyne set out to find exactly where the Americans were. This was the opportunity, and Benedict Arnold[2] seized it. He led his men and whoever would follow him, again and again, right into the British lines. Their centre was pierced, and Burgoyne ordered the retreat. When he again reached the crossing-place of the Hudson, the opposite bank was held by strong bodies of New England militiamen who had gathered in great numbers. Northward and westward of him was the Adirondack wilderness, southward the American army. Burgoyne and the British soldiers stood it as long as they could, but when their food was on the point of giving out, they surrendered on condition that they should be sent to England and should not serve again in America while the war lasted.[3]

[1] Gates was an Englishman, an officer in the regular army who fought in the last French war and then settled in Virginia. His military knowledge attracted Washington's attention, and he was appointed adjutant-general of the army before Boston. There, his gracious bearing gained the affection of the colonists and led to his rapid advancement.

[2] Arnold had displeased Gates and been deprived of his command; but he led his old division into the thick of the fight and really won the battle.

[3] This agreement, or military treaty, is called the Saratoga Convention. When Congress realized that the Convention troops, as these returned prisoners were called, could take the place of British soldiers in European forts and these latter might be sent to America, it refused to permit Burgoyne's army to embark for England.

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185. The French Alliance, 1778. — Benjamin Franklin and other American agents had been in France for some time seeking aid from that country, for the French were still embittered by the loss of Canada. The French king gave the Americans money and allowed them to purchase arms and military supplies. The surrender of Burgoyne's whole army induced the king of France to make a Treaty of Alliance with the United States, by which he agreed to aid them openly. At first he gave them more supplies, and then sent fleets and armies to America.[1]

John Paul Jones.

186. Captain Paul Jones. — The French king and government also helped the Americans by allowing them to use French ports for the fitting out and preparing of ships-of-war. The most famous naval captain of the Revolution was John Paul Jones.[2] His ship was named the *Bon Homme Richard*, or "Poor Richard," in honor of Dr. Franklin's most famous literary production.[3] In this old merchant ship which

[1] In the summer of 1778, the British abandoned Philadelphia and marched overland through New Jersey to New York. Washington attacked them at Monmouth, but without success, owing to the misconduct of General Charles Lee. The latter was an Englishman, and not a member of the famous Virginia family of that name.

[2] He was born in Scotland, in 1747, and only came to Virginia in 1773. Originally his name was John Paul; but he now added Jones to it, soon dropping the John, so that he is known in history as Paul Jones.

[3] This was *Poor Richard's Almanack*. Besides the yearly calendars and other matter usually found in almanacs, Franklin inserted in his books bits of good advice: "It is hard for an empty sack to stand upright," "Many words

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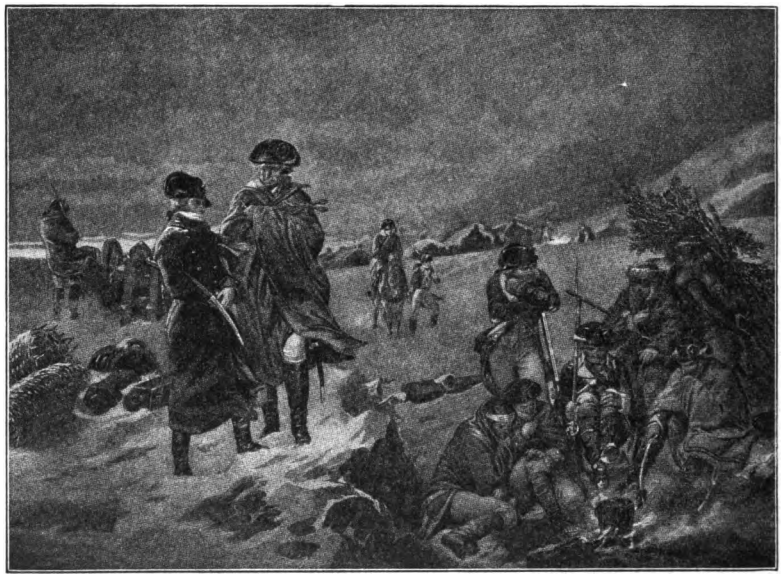
was hardly seaworthy, and was very poorly armed, Paul Jones ran alongside one of the finest frigates in the British navy. He got so close to the enemy that his muskets shot down nearly every man on the spar-deck of the British ship. At the same time, the enemy's guns on the next deck below were firing cannon-balls through and through Jones's ship. The British surrendered; Jones



Washington and Lafayette at Valley Forge.

removed his crew to the captured ship before his own vessel went down, and thus ended one of the most glorious naval battles in the annals of war.

187. The Winter at Valley Forge, 1777–1778. — While the negotiators at Paris were drawing up the Treaty of

will not fill a bushel," "God helps them that help themselves," "Lost time is never found again." This book has been translated into eighteen different languages.

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Alliance with France, the American army was starving in its winter camp at Valley Forge. There was still the old lack of money, but now added to this was want of system in buying food and supplies and bringing them to the army. For days, the soldiers were often without meat; the clothes of hundreds of them were in tatters. Many were obliged to go barefoot over the frozen ground because they had no shoes, and some of them had no blankets with which to cover themselves at night. Washington felt keenly for the suffering soldiers and declared that their heroism was deserving of all praise.

188. Lafayette and Steuben. — The Revolution had attracted to America adventurous spirits from all over Europe. Some of these were persons seeking glory; they were anxious for uniforms and high rank, whether they deserved them or not. Others came because American principles attracted them. Of these last Lafayette (Lä′fā-ĕt′) and Steuben (Stū′ben) must ever be held in grateful remembrance by all Americans. Lafayette [1] was of a noble French family. As the king would not send him to America, he bought a ship and came on his own responsibility. When he arrived, he declared that he wanted neither rank nor pay. His winning ways so pleased Washington that he invited him to become one of his aides. A short time only was needed to convince the commander-in-chief of the sterling qualities and high character of the young Frenchman. The second foreigner,

[1] Lafayette was nineteen years of age when he sailed for America. After the American Revolution, he returned to France and became a leader in the early part of the French Revolution, but later fell out with the revolutionists. Going to Germany, he was imprisoned by the Austrians, and was set at liberty by the intercession of Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1824, he visited America for the last time. He traveled over the country, placed flowers on Washington's tomb, and was everywhere received with admiring affection. He went back to France and died in Paris, May 20, 1834.

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Baron Steuben, was a Prussian veteran, having served in the armies of Frederick the Great, the king of that country, who was the foremost soldier of his day. Steuben, too, asked neither for rank nor pay, but told Congress that he would serve for six months and then would take whatever position seemed to be fitting. It was not long before his soldier-like qualities were fully recognized. He was appointed inspector-general of the army, and in this winter at Valley Forge he set to work drilling the soldiers until they became as good troops as any in the world.[1] Steuben, also, made a little book, stating the duties of soldiers and officers. This was adopted by Congress and became the basis of the military system of the United States.

189. Clark's Western Campaign, 1778–1779. — While this fighting had been going on in the older settled parts of the country, George Rogers Clark,[2] a Virginia soldier, had been fighting the British in the country west of the Allegheny Mountains and north of the Ohio River. He got a commission from Patrick Henry, who was then governor of Virginia, authorizing him to make this expedition. He also obtained some money and military supplies from him. His soldiers came from Virginia and from the settlements that had been made west of the mountains in what is now the state of Kentucky. With these Clark crossed the Ohio River and captured the French-English settlements of Kaskaskia (Kăs-kăs′kĭ-a), Cahokia (Ka-hō′ki-a), and Vincennes (Vĭn-sĕnz′). An English force came down

[1] By this time Congress had begun to enlist soldiers for three years, or until the war should end. This permanent force was called the Continental Line.

[2] George Rogers Clark was born in Virginia, in 1752. He learned surveying, moved to Kentucky, and became a leader among the backwoodsmen. The Virginia legislature granted him several thousand acres of land in the western country for his great services; but he died poor and neglected near Louisville, Kentucky, in 1818.

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from Detroit to capture Clark and his men and to reoccupy the country; but the Americans captured the British soldiers and sent them to Virginia as prisoners.

190. **Arnold's treason, 1780.** — Benedict Arnold, the hero of Quebec and Saratoga, was grieved because Congress had not promoted him as he felt he deserved. Washington sympathized with him and gave him the com-

General Stark at the Battle of Bennington.

mand of West Point, the most important military station on the Hudson. Already, Arnold had been in correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, the British commander-in-chief, and he had asked Washington for the charge of this important post that his treason might command a higher price. Major John André (Ăn′drā), Clinton's adjutant-general, went up the Hudson to meet Arnold and arrange for turning over West Point to the British. André was captured while returning overland to New York, with plans of West Point concealed in his boots. Never dreaming for a moment that General Arnold could be a traitor, André was permitted to write him a note. On receiving it he made good his escape to New York, where General Clinton

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paid him five thousand pounds and gave him a command in the British army. Washington asked the leading generals in the American army to advise him as to whether André was a spy or not. They replied that he was a spy and he was hanged as the British had hanged a young American, Nathan Hale, a few years before, also for being a spy.

191. Summary. — General Howe won the battle of Brandywine and captured Philadelphia, 1777. General Burgoyne led an expedition southward from Canada, and was captured with his army at Saratoga. Captain Paul Jones won a famous victory over an English ship. The winter of 1777–1778 at Valley Forge was a time of hardship and of military training; 1778–1779, Clark won the Northwest; 1780, Benedict Arnold committed treason.

THE SOUTHERN CAMPAIGNS

192. Capture of Charleston, 1780. — The British armies were not making much headway in the North, so General Clinton decided to send another expedition to attempt the conquest of the Southern States. In the winter of 1778–1779, British soldiers captured Savannah and held it against all attempts of the French and Americans to retake it. In the

General Marion.

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spring of 1780, General Clinton himself came to South Carolina with a large part of his main army. He marched overland to Charleston and, after a vigorous siege, captured that city with the American army that was defending it.

193. **Battle of Camden, 1780.** — The easy conquest of the Carolinas now seemed certain. There was no regular American army to oppose the advance of Lord Cornwallis, who was left in command there when Clinton returned to New York. Patriots like Marion,[1] Sumter, and Pickens harassed the British in every possible way, but could not oppose any large body of them successfully in battle. General Gates, with soldiers drawn from Washington's army and militia regiments from Virginia and North Carolina, marched southward to put an end to the successful career of Cornwallis. The two armies met late in the night at Camden, South Carolina. As soon as it was light, the British attacked with vigor. Without waiting even to receive this attack, the frightened militia turned and fled, bearing Gates himself from the field in their rush. Alone, the regular regiments of the Continental Line fought to the end. Their leader, General John Kalb, another foreign officer whose name should be held in highest honor, died after being wounded eleven times. Their officers who remained alive then surrendered.

194. **Battle of King's Mountain, 1780.** — Affairs seemed to be going worse than ever, when a ray of light appeared

[1] A southern officer who served in these campaigns states that on one occasion Marion invited an English officer who had visited him on business to remain to dinner. They had nothing to eat except roasted potatoes served on pieces of bark instead of plates. Upon his visitor expressing surprise at the scantiness of the fare, Marion informed him that food was unusually abundant that day. Convinced that men who fought so well and so willingly on so little food could never be conquered, the Englishman resigned his commission and returned to his home.

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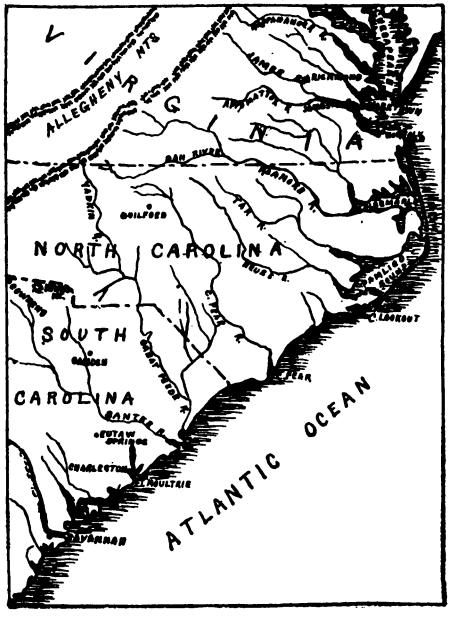
in the west. The valleys of the Alleghenies had now been occupied by frontier settlers whose clearings extended westward to what are now the easternmost parts of the states of Tennessee and Kentucky. Believing that there were a good many Loyalists in the western parts of the Carolinas, Cornwallis sent Ferguson with his Loyalist regiment of riflemen to induce these to join the British army. The American patriots on the frontier did not like this bringing the war to their doors. Collecting from their scattered hamlets, they advanced rapidly and with great secrecy to King's Mountain on the northernmost edge of South Carolina, where they found Ferguson encamped. Dividing into groups, they charged up the steep sides of the mountain, availing themselves of every possible bit of shelter. The British riflemen drove back first one body then another, but every time they returned to the attack. When most of Ferguson's Loyalists had been killed or wounded, the rest surrendered. The victors then dispersed to their homes in the valleys and on the slopes of the mountains of Virginia and the Carolinas as rapidly and silently as they had come.



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195. Battle of Cowpens, South Carolina, 1781. — General Nathanael Greene[1] was now given a few regiments from Washington's army and sent to the South to gather the remnant of Gates's force, and do what he could to stem the tide of British progress. Arrived in North Carolina, Greene soon brought back discipline to the dispirited American forces. He stationed himself with the main body of his troops on one line of Cornwallis's advance and sent Daniel Morgan, a skilful Virginia commander, to watch the British doings farther to the west. At the Cowpens, just over the border in South Carolina, Morgan learned that the dashing British cavalryman, Colonel Tarleton, was coming to

Nathanael Greene.

[1] Nathanael Greene was born in Rhode Island in 1742. His parents were Quakers, but he studied the art of war in every book he could lay his hands on. When Washington reached Cambridge in July, 1775, he found Greene at the head of the Rhode Island regiments. He was the youngest of the brigadier-generals, but at once attracted the commander-in-chief's attention by his military bearing and knowledge. Washington pushed him forward in every possible way, but his great reputation as a general rests mainly on these southern campaigns. Georgia and the Carolinas granted him lands in recognition of his services. After the war he resided near Savannah, Georgia, where he died in 1786.

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attack him. Morgan posted his own cavalrymen in the rear behind a hill; on the side of the hill, he placed his best soldiers and stationed his militiamen in the front. He told these last, that if they would fire only one volley, they might then get out of the way as quickly as they wished. Tarleton, feeling a contempt for the American soldiers, dashed at them on sight. True to their orders, the militiamen fired and then got out of the way as fast as they could. When the British came to the continentals, they found them unyielding. Morgan then ordered his horsemen to attack and the British turned and fled, but not many of them got off alive. Without waiting even to count his prisoners, Morgan sent them off under guard to Virginia, while he himself, with the rest of his troops, marched at top speed to rejoin Greene.

196. **The race across North Carolina.** — Hearing of this disaster, Cornwallis at once put his whole army in motion to attack and capture Morgan. Finding that the latter had got the start of him, Cornwallis caused his soldiers to destroy everything that they did not absolutely need and thus stripped for speed took up the pursuit of Morgan's little band. Greene, too, at once put his main body in motion to join Morgan before Cornwallis could reach him. The armies, sometimes within sight of one another, raced across the state of North Carolina, until the Americans reached safety on the northern bank of the Dan River in Virginia. Cornwallis could not follow him because Greene had secured all the boats for a long distance up and down the stream and taken them to his side of the river.

197. **Battle of Guilford Court House, 1781.** — While on his northward way, Greene had picked out a position at Guilford (Gĭl′ford) Court House as being splendidly fitted for the kind of battle that Morgan had waged at Cowpens. As soon as he had gathered soldiers enough to meet Corn-

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wallis, he recrossed the Dan and marched to his chosen spot. There Cornwallis was obliged to fight him. The battle was one of the most fiercely contested during the whole course of the war. At the end, Greene was forced to retreat. The British were victorious, but Greene had dealt them such a blow that Cornwallis was obliged to leave his wounded behind and march to Wilmington where he could get more men and more supplies from the British fleet.

198. **Greene's later campaign.** — Greene followed Cornwallis as far as he could, but when he felt certain that the British would not stop until they got to the sea, he turned southward toward Camden, where Cornwallis had left a small force. There, again, Greene was defeated in a battle, but there, again, the British were obliged to retreat. The same thing happened in two more engagements, until the British had left the interior of South Carolina and gone back to Charleston. In this wonderful series of military operations, Greene lost every battle and won every campaign.

199. **Plan of the Yorktown campaign.** — From Wilmington, Cornwallis might have gone by water back to Charleston and begun all over again. Instead, he marched northward to Virginia and fortified a position at Yorktown. Meantime, a French army had landed at Newport, Rhode Island. Washington was at New York with the main American army when word came to him that the French admiral, De Grasse, was sailing northward, from the West Indies, with a great fleet and another body of French soldiers. Washington determined to unite all these forces with a small American army that was already in Virginia before Yorktown and with them capture Cornwallis and all his men. This wonderful manœuvre was so well planned and so splendidly carried out that Washington,

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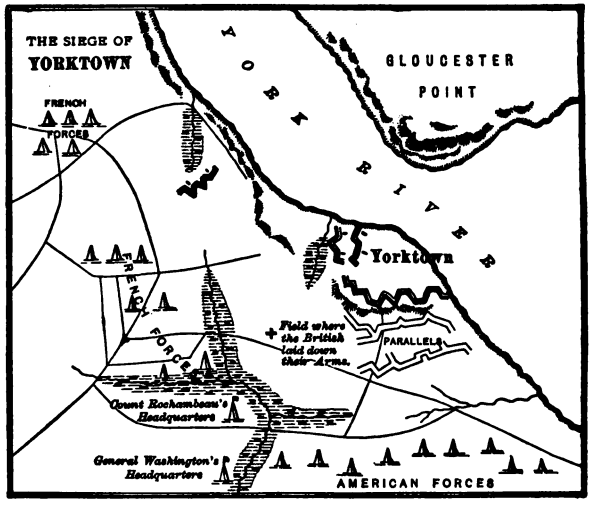
with his soldiers and the French from Newport, marched by New York without Clinton's suspecting where they were going and reached the head of the Chesapeake at almost the same moment that the French anchored at the entrance of the bay. The British admiral at New York sailed southward to drive De Grasse off, but did not succeed. As long as the French fleet maintained its place in Chesapeake Bay, there was no hope of aid reaching Cornwallis from New York.

200. **Yorktown surrendered, October 19, 1781.**—The siege of Yorktown went slowly on until it became necessary to



capture two forts that protected one end of the British lines. This task was given to French and American forces, each having one fort. The American attackers were led by Colonel Alexander Hamilton who had been on Washington's staff, but was now commanding in the field. The forts were captured with a rush and when day dawned, their guns were turned on the inner line of British de-

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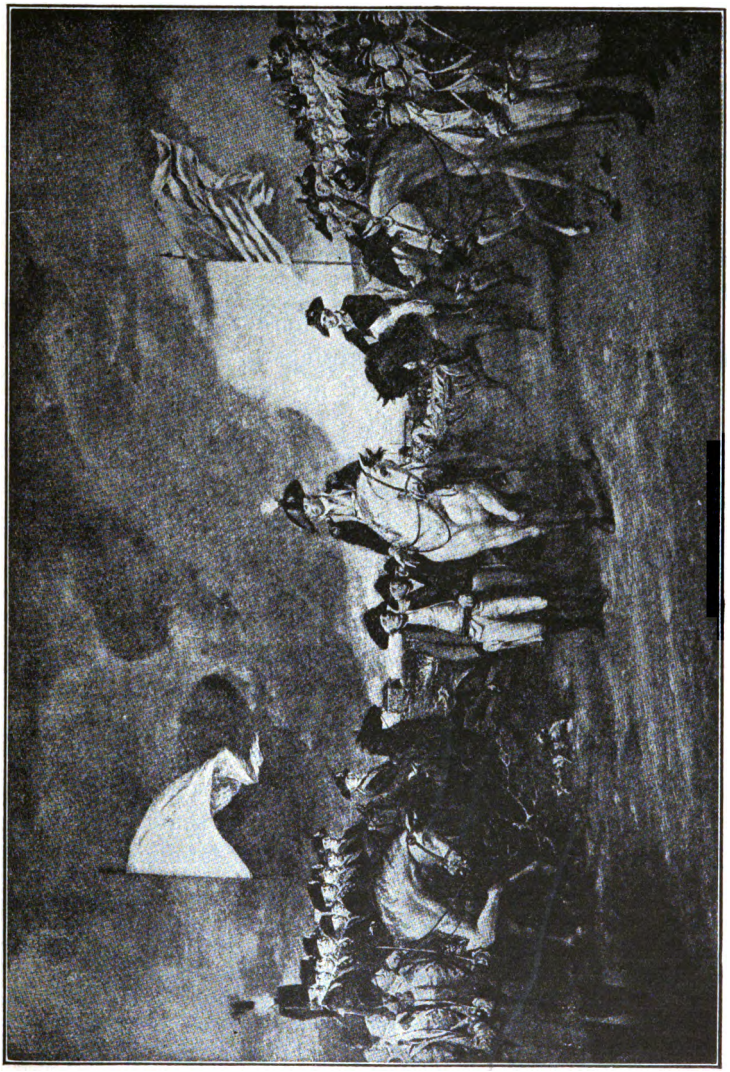

Surrender of Cornwallis.

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fence. Cornwallis tried to drive the Americans away from these advanced positions the next night, but could not do it. There was nothing left but surrender. On October 19, 1781, the British marched out, their band playing the good old march of the "World turned upside down," and surrendered to General Lincoln who had been appointed by Washington for that purpose. Cornwallis and Clinton returned to England to join Howe, Burgoyne, and Gage in making explanations of how it had all happened.

201. **Treaty of Peace, 1783.** — The royal disaster at Yorktown practically closed the fighting in America, but the treaty of peace was not signed at Paris until nearly two years later, September 3, 1783. The Americans who negotiated this treaty were Benjamin Franklin,[1] John Jay, and John Adams. They secured very favorable terms, for by the treaty the bounds of the United States extended westward to the Mississippi. Moreover, the British king acknowledged them to be "free, sovereign, and independent States." It was also provided in the treaty that no more injury should be done to the Loyalists and that debts which were owed to British merchants or other persons should be paid.

202. **Robert Morris.** — In war, money is almost as necessary as gunpowder or muskets, for the soldiers must be fed, and must be paid, so that they can send something home to buy food and clothing for their families. Wash-

[1] Benjamin Franklin was the oldest of the great men of the Revolutionary period. He was born at Boston in 1706. He went to Philadelphia as a lad and identified himself with his adopted city. He has been called the many-sided Franklin because he was the first great scientific American, its earliest great man of letters, a most successful politician, one of the leading diplomats of his time, and a shrewd maker of constitutions. His discoveries in electricity won him a great reputation which was of exceeding advantage when he went to Paris to represent the United States there. All in all he was the shrewdest and most intellectual man of his day.

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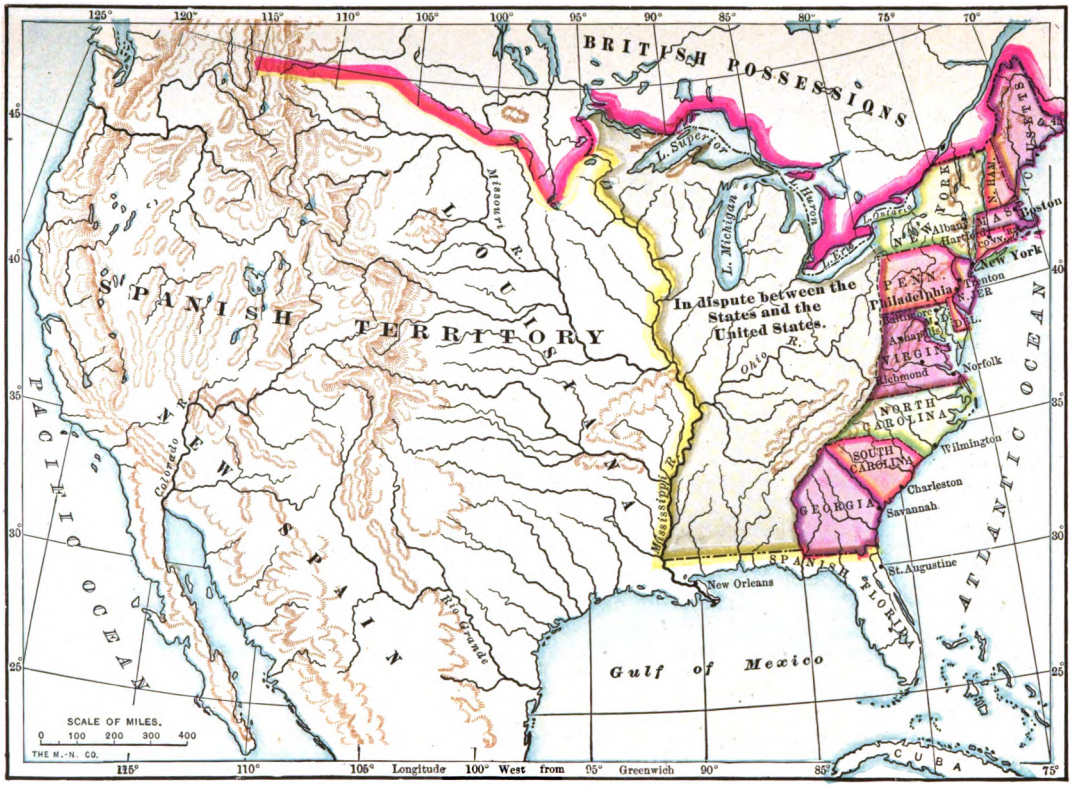

THE UNITED STATES IN 1783.

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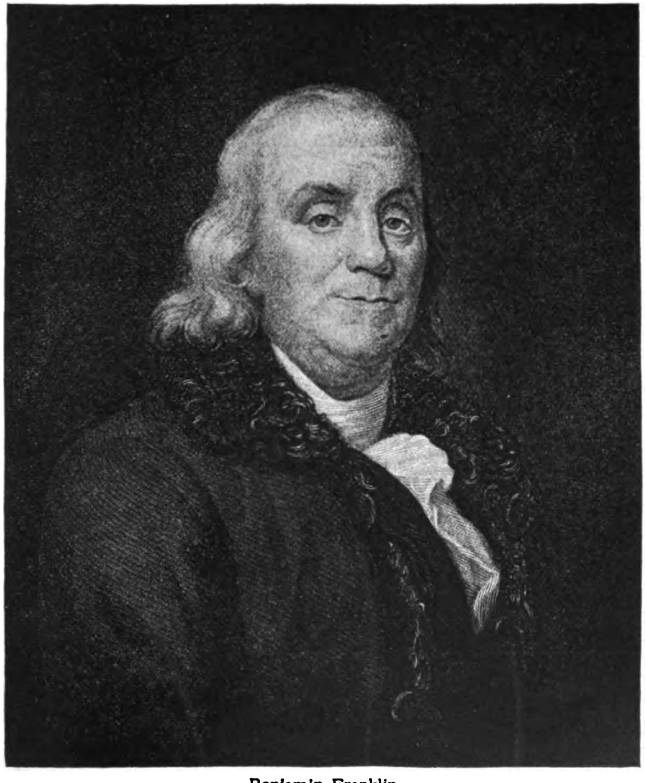
ington was oftentimes so hard pressed for money that it seemed as if his army would surely go to pieces. In Philadelphia there lived an Englishman who had been brought



Benjamin Franklin.

to America, when only a boy, by his father. His name was Robert Morris. He entered the employment of a great Philadelphia shipping firm as a clerk. Because of his ability and energy, he rose rapidly from one position to another, until he became a partner in the concern. In

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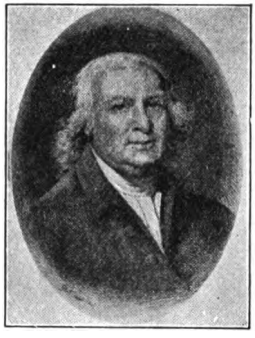
those darkest days of the Revolution, in the winter of 1776–1777, Washington appealed to Morris for money. The latter went around among his friends, some of whom were Quakers, and borrowed fifty thousand dollars in silver and gold on his own credit, and sent it to Washington, who used it to keep enough soldiers together to defend the country. In 1781, Robert Morris was given sole charge of the finances of the country, with the title of "Financier," which answers to the office of Secretary of the Treasury at the present day.



Robert Morris.

203. Summary. — General Clinton captured Charleston, 1780. Cornwallis defeated Gates at Camden, but the British were beaten at King's Mountain, 1780, and at Cowpens, 1781. The American general, Nathanael Greene, conducted a series of remarkable campaigns which freed the Carolinas from the British. Cornwallis surrendered to the allied American and French armies at Yorktown, 1781. Two years later, a treaty of peace was signed at Paris. Robert Morris lent money to Washington at a most needy moment, and was made "Financier."

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

The Revolutionary War

- **Bunker Hill to Trenton 1775–1776**
  - *Chances of Victory.*
  - *The Hessians.*
  - *Second Continental Congress, May 10, 1775.*
  - *Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775.*
  - *The Canada Expedition, 1775–1776.*
  - *British attack Charleston, South Carolina, 1776.*
  - *Evacuation of Boston, March 17, 1776.*
  - *Declaration of Independence*
    - Proposed.
    - Adopted July 4, 1776.
    - Signed August, 1776.
  - *The Loyalists.*
  - *Battle of Long Island, 1776.*
  - *Loss of New York City.*
  - *Trenton and Princeton.*
- **Struggle for the Delaware and the Hudson**
  - *Campaign in Pennsylvania 1777*
    - Plan.
    - Battle of Brandywine.
    - Battle of Germantown.
    - Winter at Valley Forge.
  - *Burgoyne's advance from Canada, 1777*
    - Battle of Bennington.
    - Battle of Oriskany.
    - The Saratoga Battles.
    - Burgoyne's Surrender.
  - *The French Alliance, 1778.*
  - *Captain Paul Jones.*
  - *Lafayette and Steuben.*
  - *Clark's Western Campaign, 1778–1779*
  - *Arnold's Treason, 1780.*
- **The Southern Campaigns**
  - *Capture of Charleston, 1780.*
  - *Battle of Camden, 1780.*
  - *Battle of King's Mountain, 1780.*
  - *Battle of Cowpens, South Carolina, 1781.*
  - *The Race across North Carolina.*
  - *Battle of Guilford Court House.*
  - *Greene's Later Campaigns.*
  - *The Yorktown Campaign*
    - Plan.
    - Siege.
    - Surrender, Oct. 19, 1781.
  - *Treaty of Peace, 1783.*

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VII

THE CRITICAL PERIOD, 1783–1789

CONFEDERATION AND CONFUSION

204. Condition of the country in 1783. — The fighting with England was now over, but the people of the several states were nearly as badly off as they had been before the signing of the treaty of peace. Before the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, the colonies had enjoyed freedom of trade with all parts of the British Empire, because they were parts of that empire. Now that they were independent, the British government declared that American ships should no longer sail to the British West India Islands, and thus cut off American ship-owners and merchants from a most profitable commerce. The disbanded soldiers had returned to their homes with little money, and often with many debts hanging over their heads. In every way the old conditions were gone, and the people had to make a new start. Each one of the old thirteen colonies was now an independent state. Each state managed its own business affairs to suit itself; some had free trade, others taxed everything that was brought in even from the next state. Thus New York provided that every boat, even one from the Jersey side of New York Harbor, must go through the same forms, in order to land its freight, as a great ship coming from Europe or from Africa. There was no freedom of trade between the states as there is now, and the people of each state had to rely on their own efforts.

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205. Articles of Confederation. — There was a sort of general government provided in the Articles of Confederation. The affairs of the general government were managed by the Congress of the United States. It was a very feeble government; it could not make any one obey any laws it might pass or any treaties that it might negotiate with foreign powers. Congress could not raise one cent by taxation, but had to ask the states for whatever money it needed. In all probability, the thirteen states would have split up into two or three separate governments had it not been for the feeling of unity that the war had aroused, and the interest which all the states had in the development of the country lying west of the Allegheny Mountains.

206. The Western Country. — After the close of the French War, the English government had tried to stop settlers going to the country west of the Allegheny Mountains, because there they would be so far away from the coast that they would not buy many English goods, and probably would pay very little attention to the orders of the English king. Settlers, nevertheless, went over the mountains, and began to clear the land in Kentucky and Tennessee. The best known of these pioneers was Daniel Boone.[1] In 1769, he went over the mountains with a few

[1] Daniel Boone was born in Pennsylvania in 1735. When he was about seventeen years of age, his family removed to North Carolina. He had little book learning, but knew the forests as well as any Red Man. In his expeditions to Kentucky, he was sometimes captured by the Indians, but he always escaped. As soon as the place in which he happened to be living became thickly settled, he moved again into the wilderness. He died in Missouri in 1820.

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Daniel Boone

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companions, and spent some time wandering through the forests. Later, he marked out the "Wilderness Road," which led from the settlements in the North Carolina mountains through central Kentucky. The western settlers who went over this road wished to set up a separate state government for themselves. The Virginians did not like this. They said that Kentucky was a part of Virginia, and formed the settlements into the county of Kentucky, with a government like the other Virginia counties. It was not until some years later that Kentucky was admitted to the Union as a separate state.

207. "The Old Northwest." — After the close of the Revolutionary War, many of the old soldiers of the American armies bethought themselves of going to the western country and making new homes for their families in the wilderness. Unfortunately, the region that had been conquered by Clark and his companions was claimed wholly or in part by four states. This made so much uncertainty about grants of land and forms of government that it greatly retarded emigration. Some of the states which had no right to these or other western lands suggested to Congress that all the states which claimed lands west of the mountains should surrender their rights to the United States so that these lands could be used for the benefit of all the people of the United States. This was done, and, in 1787, Congress provided a government for the Territory Northwest of the Ohio River. In this law, or "Ordinance

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of 1787," Congress promised that when the territory became thickly settled, it should be admitted to the Union as states, three, four, or five in number. Settlers now began to press into this new region. They went through Pennsylvania to Pittsburg by wagons, and then down the river on rafts or flatboats to their new homes.[1]

208. Hard Times, 1785–1786. — One reason for the emigration from the old states to the West was the great difficulty of making a living in the older settled part of the country. When the war came to an end, every one thought that good times were coming. They spent their money freely, paying out all that they had on hand and running into debt for goods that they could not pay for with cash. Perhaps times would have been good, had not the English government done all that it could to destroy the trade of the United States. This was a very short-sighted move on the part of the British, because in this way they made it impossible for American merchants to pay for goods that they had already received or to order any more. When everybody owes money, as they did in 1786, it is the poorer people and the working men and women who suffer most; but there was now so much distress that even the rich suffered. Everywhere, throughout the states, those who had money owing them were trying to collect it so that they, in turn, could pay what they themselves owed. At first they tried persuasion; then they put their bills and claims into the hands of lawyers. Soon the courts became crowded with the cases that

[1] Many of these emigrants from the older states were Revolutionary veterans. Among them was a party led by General Rufus Putman which settled Marietta (Mā′rĭ-ĕt′a) in 1788. Others went farther down the river and settled Cincinnati, which was so called from the society of Revolutionary veterans of that name. Marietta was made up from Marie Antoinette, the name of the queen of France, for at that time the people were very grateful to the French king for the aid which he had so recently given.

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CLAIMS AND CESSIONS.

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were brought before them. In their distress the people blamed the judges and lawyers.

209. **Shays's Rebellion, 1786.** — In Massachusetts, especially, there was great trouble. Led by a captain in the Revolutionary army, Daniel Shays by name, the distressed debtors attended the sittings of the courts and compelled the judges to stop hearing cases and to shut up the court-houses. General Lincoln was placed at the head of a small body of troops to put an end to these disorders. It was in the middle of winter when he started out on this errand; the snow was deep on the ground in the western part of the state where Shays and his companions were gathered. Lincoln pursued them through a tremendous storm and, by his energetic action, in a few days put an end to the uprising.

210. **Summary.** — Hard times followed the war. The government under the Articles of Confederation was weak. Emigrants from the original states sought the western country. In 1786, Shays's Rebellion occurred in Massachusetts.

THE CONSTITUTION

211. **The Federal Convention, May, 1787.** — The troubles between the states, the difficulties of making a living anywhere, and the probability that the states would go to fighting each other at any time, set serious-minded men everywhere a-thinking. George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, and other leaders in the Revolutionary War now acted with younger men like James Madison of Virginia to bring about the formation of a stronger general or federal[1] government. They carried out their plans so well that Congress authorized the calling of a convention to meet at Philadelphia in

[1] The word "federal" means composed of states or districts which retain only a subordinate and limited sovereignty.

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May, 1787, to propose changes in the existing government of the United States that would make it better fitted for carrying on the business of the country. The people had now become thoroughly convinced of the necessity of making such changes, and each state sent its best men to attend this meeting. John Adams was in England as the first American minister to appear before King George, and Thomas Jefferson was American minister in France. Otherwise, nearly all the ablest men in political life came to Philadelphia, with the exception of Patrick Henry of Virginia and Samuel Adams of Massachusetts. Washington was chosen the presiding officer of the convention, or meeting, and his taking so prominent a position convinced the people of the value of what was being done. Benjamin Franklin was there, too, and so were Alexander Hamilton and James Madison. The last named took down careful notes of everything that was said and done. These notes have been printed, and are of the greatest importance for any one who wishes to find out the reasons for the peculiar things in our system of government.

212. **The Work of the Convention.** — It was no easy thing to make over the government, because the people of the several states had so many different ideas and interests. There were large states, like Virginia and Pennsylvania, and small states, like Delaware, New Jersey, and Rhode Island. In the existing government all the states were on a footing of equality, Delaware having as many votes on any measure as Pennsylvania or Virginia. As there were seven times as many people in Pennsylvania as there were in Delaware, this meant that each Pennsylvanian had only one-seventh as much to say about the affairs of the United States as each citizen of Delaware had. This seemed to be very unfair to the Pennsylvanians and the Virginians, especially if the new government was

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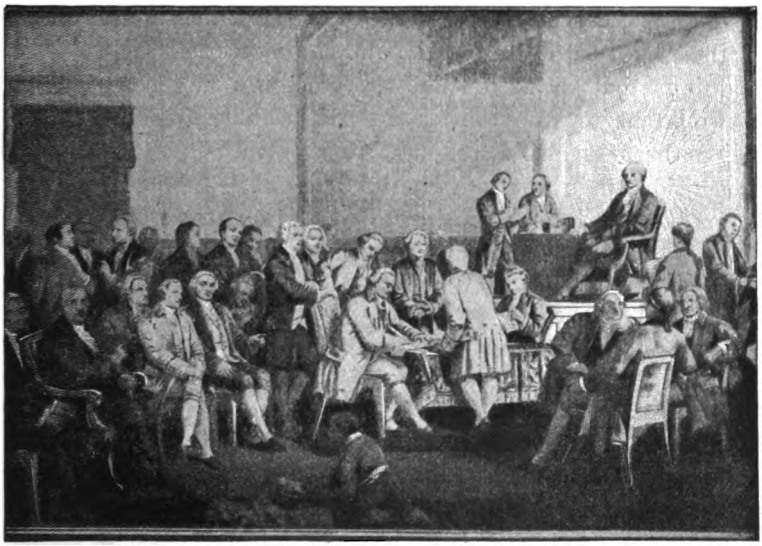
going to tax the people of the states directly without asking the consent of the state governments. On the other hand, the people of the smaller states thought that, if votes in the reconstructed Congress were to be in proportion to the number of people in each state, the combined representatives of Virginia, Pennsylvania, and



Signing the Constitution, September 17, 1787.

Massachusetts could legislate without the consent of the other ten states put together and directly against their interests. The way out of this difficulty was at last found by having a Congress of two Houses, and giving each state two votes in the Senate, but distributing the representatives according to the number of people living in the several states.

Another very serious trouble now arose because of the great influence that slavery had in South Carolina.

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Negroes were held in slavery in every state, except in Massachusetts, where they had been declared free by the supreme court of the state. In Virginia, there were many slaves. Washington, Jefferson, and Henry were opposed to slavery, but they did not know how to get rid of it. The South Carolinians believed in slavery and wanted to have more slaves and to bring them direct from Africa. They were afraid that, if the new government was given the power to regulate trade and commerce, one of the first things that the people of the Northern States would do would be to stop the slave trade. The Northerners and Southerners also disputed as to how the slaves should be considered in counting the population. Should a slave state have representatives in proportion to all the people who lived within her borders, whether slave or free? The Northerners thought that slaves should not be counted for this purpose at all, partly because they had no votes; but they insisted that they should be counted in determining the amount of tax to be paid by the slave state, because their masters regarded them as property. These were difficult questions. At last it was decided to allow each state representation according to the number of free persons living within it, and three-fifths of the slaves.

213. **The President.** — When these questions were settled, it was not difficult to decide upon the new frame of government or Constitution. It was decided to do away with the existing government, and to make an entirely new one. In the future, the United States of America should have a President, who should take an oath to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution. To enable him to do this, he was made commander-in-chief of all the military and naval forces.

214. **The Congress of the United States.** — Congress consisted of two Houses, a Senate and a House of Represen-

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tatives. A law was passed by them subject to the approval of the President, unless upon his disapproval it should be repassed by two-thirds of both Houses. Congress was given tremendous power; it could lay and collect taxes, borrow money, regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, provide an army and navy, declare war, and make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution these great powers. The President, with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senators present, could make treaties with foreign nations and appoint all officers of the United States. The laws passed by Congress and treaties made by the President with the consent of the Senate "shall be the supreme Law of the Land," and judges in every state shall be bound thereby, no matter what the constitutions of the states might contain.

215. **The Supreme Court.** — To secure the carrying out of this Constitution, a Supreme Court of the United States was established whose judges hold office during good behavior and receive salaries at stated times, which cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. These judges are, therefore, independent of President and Congress. This proposed government was so unlike the existing federal union that, when it was adopted by the people of the states, it was spoken of as "the new roof" supported by thirteen columns, one for each state.

216. **"We the People."** — When the new Constitution was ready, the people of the several states were asked to send delegates to a convention in each state which should give or refuse the consent of the people of that state to the Constitution. If the people of nine states agreed to it, it should go into force at once between those states, regardless of the other four. The smaller states had gained so much more than they had expected that they ratified it at

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VIII

THE FIRST THREE PRESIDENTS

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION; THE GOVERNMENT ORGANIZED

219. Washington's advisers. — Congress at once established four great departments of the government, and Washington[1] looked about him for the best men to place at their heads. Both John Adams and Jefferson had returned from abroad. Adams had been elected Vice-president. Washington now offered the position of Secretary of State to Jefferson. For Secretary of the Treasury, he selected Alexander Hamilton,[2] whose talent as an organizer

[1] George Washington, first President of the United States, was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon in 1799. As a boy, he expected to have to make his own way in the world, and trained himself to be a surveyor. He practised his profession for some time, and then by inheritance and by marriage became one of the richest men in the colonies. His habits of thrift and love of order remained through life. His plantations were among the best managed in Virginia. In the French and Indian War, he had ridden to Boston from Virginia to arrange certain matters with the commander-in-chief there, and this journey made Washington's commanding figure and noble bearing familiar to his countrymen. While a member of the Continental Congress, he was looked upon as possessing the soundest judgment of them all. At his death, he was recognized as "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

[2] Alexander Hamilton was born at Nevis, an island in the West Indies, on January 11, 1757. At the age of twelve, he became a clerk in a business house on the island. In 1772, he sailed for the Northern Colonies and the next year entered King's College, now Columbia University, in New York City. Although he was only eighteen years of age at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, he at once took an active part. Attracting Washington's attention by his energy and ability, he was appointed one of his secretaries, and thus began a friendship which was to have important consequences, not only

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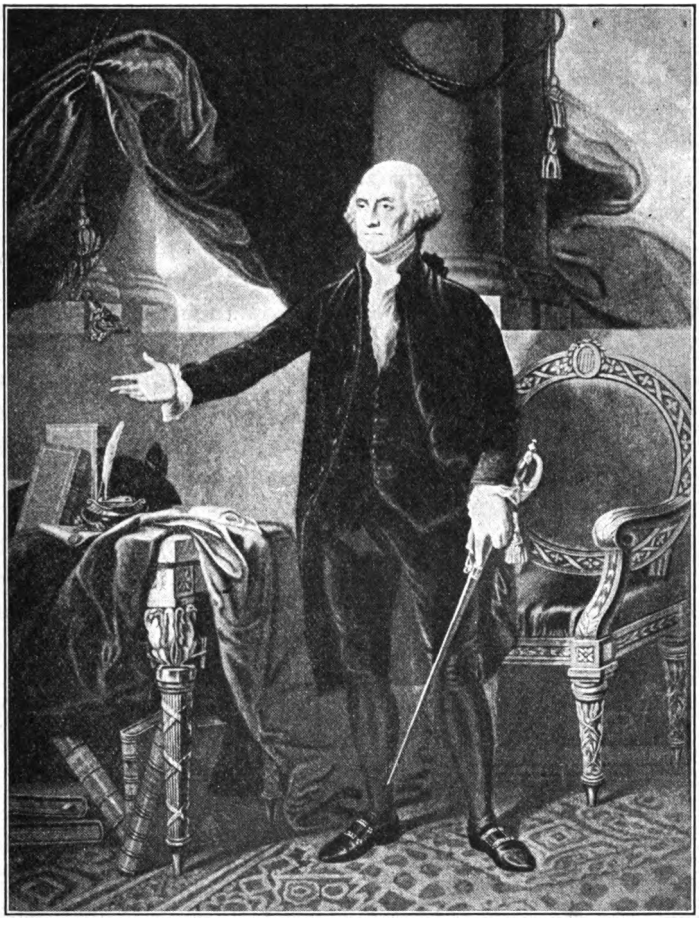

George Washington.

during the war had impressed Washington. For Secretary of War, he chose General Henry Knox, his chief of artillery

for Washington and Hamilton, but for the American people. After the Revolution, Hamilton studied law and was successful in his profession. He was killed by Aaron Burr in a duel, July, 1806. His tragic death did much to put an end to the practice of duelling in the North.

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throughout the Revolution. The fourth important adviser was the Attorney-general; for this post Washington chose Edmund Randolph, formerly governor of Virginia, who had lately distinguished himself by introducing the plan of a national government at the meeting in Philadelphia.

The four heads of departments formed a sort of council for the President to which the English name of cabinet came to be applied. When we speak of these officials as advisers to the President, we must be careful to realize that he is not in any way obliged to follow their advice or even to ask it. There was also a Postmaster-general, but at this time the office was not important enough to give its holder a place in the cabinet. The other great position at Washington's disposal was the office of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and this place he offered to John Jay, who had acted as Secretary of Foreign Affairs for the last few years of the government of the Confederation. In his appointments to these offices,[1] Washington had been anxious to secure the services of the best men in the country. Franklin was now very old and growing feeble, or he would doubtless have been offered some very important position, and Madison was fully occupied with securing the passage of laws in the House of Representatives, of which he was a leading member.

220. The nation's debts and how they were paid.—The United States owed money to the French and the Dutch for aid which they had given during the war. It owed even more to creditors at home, whose property had been taken in return for paper promises to pay, and to the soldiers for their services in the army. During the last

[1] The Secretary of State at this time had charge of all foreign affairs, and all internal concerns that did not fall within the other great departments. The Secretary of the Treasury was intrusted with the management of the finances; the Secretary of War had charge of the army and the navy; the Attorney-general was the legal adviser of the government.

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few years, Congress had borrowed some money abroad, and the [illegible] pay the interest on the existing debt, and the [illegible] of ever getting their money back had lessened so far [illegible] to the creditors at home that most of them had [illegible] government's promises to pay to almost any other [illegible] would buy them, and for almost any price that he [illegible] give. Besides these national debts, there were state [illegible] Hamilton now proceeded to [illegible] pay every cent of these [illegible] debts, foreign and domestic, [illegible] national and state,[1] just as [illegible] the government had promised at the outset. Many people thought that this was very foolish, because very few persons who now held these bonds and other pieces of paper had paid very much for them. Hamilton replied that this made no difference, if the credit of the United States was to be established, the government must pay what it had promised. After long debates and much [illegible], Hamilton's plan was accepted.

Alexander Hamilton.

221. The first national tariff.—Carrying out this plan would take a great deal of money. Hitherto the national government had raised funds only through the states. Most of these had tariffs on goods imported into them, but there [illegible] national tax for raising money by a tariff [illegible] on goods [illegible] from the country from abroad. Congress called [illegible]

[1] The [illegible] Revolution [illegible]

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gress now passed the first tariff act (1789). There were then very few mills and factories, but in every part of the country there were already some industries, and every one wanted more. This first tariff act, therefore, was designed partly to bring in money by taxing foreign goods on importation, and partly to protect the infant industries of the country. The latter it was proposed to do by taxing imported goods at so high a rate that people could make similar goods in the United States, although they had to pay their workmen more wages than laborers received in Europe.[1]

222. **The Whiskey Rebellion, 1794.** — Hamilton was a believer in strong government. He thought the new national government should take hold of all the resources of the country at once. He thought that the tariff would not bring in sufficient money to pay off the debts quickly enough. So he proposed to levy a tax on all whiskey and other liquors made in the United States. Western Pennsylvania was now well settled. The farmers there raised large crops of corn, — much more than they needed for food for their families. They converted the surplus into whiskey, which could be carried over the mountains to the seaboard much more easily than could the corn from which it was made. It was sold at Philadelphia, and the money went to pay for the manufactured goods that the western Pennsylvanians needed. The makers of whiskey refused to pay this tax. They flogged the men who were sent to collect it, and fired on the United States marshal[2] when he came to

[1] Suppose, for example, that a German toy-maker could manufacture and send to New York a doll for fifty cents exactly like one which could be produced by a New York doll maker for one dollar. It is clear that if nothing was done, no dolls would be made in New York. But if dolls coming in from Germany were taxed fifty cents each, the American manufacturer could make dolls, pay his workmen American wages, and compete with his German rival.

[2] A United States marshal corresponds roughly to the sheriff of the county. It is his duty to carry out the orders of United States courts.

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the aid of the collectors. Washington then sent an army of thirteen thousand men under General Henry Lee, now governor of Virginia, who soon brought the westerners to reason without bloodshed.

223. **Other money matters.** — All these taxes and duties were collected and cared for by United States officers who were appointed by Washington and were responsible to the treasury department. Hamilton thought it would be very convenient to establish a United States bank which could have branch offices in the important cities of the country. The money that they took in could be deposited by the United States collectors in these branch banks, or in the United States bank itself, and then could be easily transferred from one part of the country to the other and used to pay the national expenses.

224. **Dollars and cents.** — Before the Revolution, the colonists used Spanish gold and silver coins which they

The Mint, Philadelphia.

obtained in their trade with the West Indies. The most important of these coins was the "piece of eight," which was so called because it was worth eight rials or reales.[1] This piece of eight was a large silver coin of almost the same size as our silver dollar. Indeed, it was called the

1 Rē'al, worth about 12½ cents.

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Spanish dollar in the later colonial period. It was divided into halves, quarters, and eighths. Jefferson thought it would be a great deal easier to divide it into one-hundredths, each one-hundredth being called a cent, from the Latin "centum." This system of reckoning by the hundredths is called the decimal system and is a very easy way to calculate — much easier than any other way we know. A mint, or place where coins are made, was erected at Philadelphia, and the United States began to make its own money instead of relying any longer upon foreign money.[1]

225. **The first census, 1790.** — In 1790, for the first time in our history, the population of the United States was counted by national officers. The work was not very accurately done, but some valuable facts were learned from this census.[2] For one thing, it appeared that there were nearly four million people in the whole United States, or not quite as many as now live in Greater New York City. Almost all of these people lived on tide-water or within fifty miles of it. There was no great city then in the country, Philadelphia with a little over forty thousand inhabitants was the largest. Of the nearly four million people then in the United States, about one hundred and ten thousand lived west of the Alleghenies, in Tennessee and Kentucky and the Northwest Territory. Nearly all of the inhabitants were engaged in agriculture, only about one-tenth of them gaining their living from commerce and manufacturing.

[1] There are four government mints in the United States: at Philadelphia, New Orleans, Denver, and San Francisco. If you will look sharply at a bright silver coin, — a dime, a quarter, a half, or a dollar, — you may tell where it was made. If there is a letter "O" on it, it was made at New Orleans; a letter "D" would mean that it was made at Denver, and an "F" at San Francisco. If there is no letter at all, it was made at Philadelphia.

[2] Census means a numbering of the people.

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226. Indian troubles in the West. — The Ordinance of 1787 guaranteed to persons who should go and settle in the Northwest Territory the rights and liberties which were guaranteed to the people of the original states by their constitutions; the national Constitution guaranteed freedom of trade to all the inhabitants of the United States. Emigrants now rushed to the western country and began making settlements in every direction. During all this time, the British had kept possession of the fort and settlement at Detroit and other posts on the Great Lakes. They said they had a right to do this, because the United States had not carried out its part of the treaty of 1783.[1] The British had done even more; they had built a new fort within the treaty limits of the United States. They had also encouraged the Indians to resist the invasion of their tribal lands by the white settlers and had supplied them with food and ammunition.

227. Wayne's Indian campaign, 1794. — Washington sent two armies against the Indians, but both were defeated. He now picked out Anthony Wayne, who had gained great distinction in the Revolutionary War. Wayne took ample time for preparation, building forts and drilling his soldiers. When at length all was ready, he marched into the Indian country and fought a famous battle in the midst of a forest where the trees had been blown down by a furious wind. On this account it is called the "Battle of the Fallen Timbers." It would seem to have been a great place for an Indian battle, because the savages could shelter themselves behind the fallen trees and in the tall grass. But Wayne's men went on with such a good-will that the Indians fled before his second line could reach the battle-

[1] Several of the states had made new laws to prevent British creditors from collecting the debts due to them from American merchants for goods purchased before the Revolutionary War.

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field. The Americans pursued the fleeing foe to the British fort which had been erected on United States soil and then burned everything in its neighborhood. The next year, 1795, Wayne signed a treaty with the Indians by which they ceded to the United States southern Ohio and northeastern Indiana, together with a small tract at Chicago and various other pieces of land. Wayne's victory and treaty combined brought peace to the frontier for fifteen years.

228. **Another treaty with England, 1794.** — While the Confederation lasted, the national government could not compel the states or the people to obey the treaty of peace. In the Constitution it was provided that a treaty once made should be a part of the law of the land just like an act of Congress, and could be enforced by means of the courts of the United States like any law. President Washington now thought that the time had come to make another treaty with England, and thus put an end to the disputes with that country. He sent John Jay on this mission, for the Chief Justice as yet had very little of judicial business to do. Jay did not find the English government very friendly to his country, but he made a treaty which put an end to the most difficult disputes. In some ways, this treaty was not at all favorable to the United States, and this led to stormy debates in Congress and to great meetings in which Washington and Jay were held up to scorn and hatred.

229. **Treaty with Spain, 1795.** — Since the United States became independent, there had been trouble with the Spaniards. They now held Louisiana and had reconquered Florida from England, so that their territory extended along both sides of the lower Mississippi and along the shore of the Gulf of Mexico, and included the peninsula of Florida. The Spaniards tried to close the navigation of the lower Mississippi to the settlers of Kentucky and

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TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS 1783-1853.

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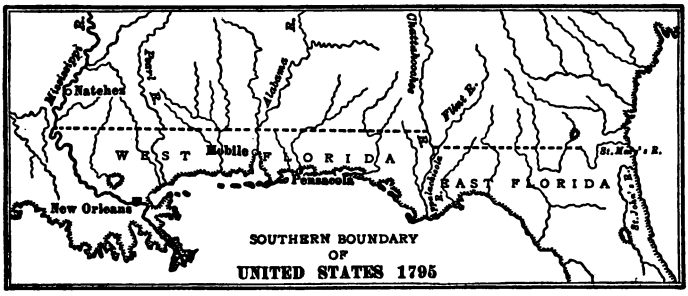
Tennessee, much to their inconvenience and indignation, for that was the easiest way to get their produce to market. The Spaniards also denied that the southern boundary of the United States extended as far south as had been arranged in the treaty of 1783 with England. Washington thought that the time had now come to end this dispute also. A treaty was made with Spain which gave to the United States the limits that it claimed. It also provided that the Americans should enjoy the free navigation of the



Mississippi, and the right to deposit their goods in the Spanish city of New Orleans while waiting shipment in sea-going vessels.

230. **Trouble with France.** — There was trouble with France, too. The people of that country had rebelled against their government, put to death their rulers, and then set up a republican form of government. They thought that the American people ought to sympathize with them and aid them against the king of Great Britain who with other European monarchs soon attacked them. The American people sympathized with the French and would have been very glad to have given them aid, especially in helping to fit out vessels for the purpose of preying upon English commerce.

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231. **The Neutrality Proclamation.** — Washington and his advisers thought that it would be dangerous to go very far in aiding the French, since it might bring on another war with England. This might be very inconvenient and perhaps prove disastrous before the new government should have become well established. The agent[1] whom the French sent over to America was very indignant because Washington declared the United States to be neutral[2] in this contest. He went on acting as if the American ports were French ports, and when Washington told him to stop, he appealed to the people against the President. At the request of the government a more discreet agent was sent over, and that was the end of the troubles with France for a year or two.

232. **Eli Whitney and his cotton gin, 1793.** — The planters of South Carolina and other Southern States had grown cotton for many years, but in very small quantities, for use on the plantations. This plant produces a soft white fibre like wool, and can be spun into thread for weaving into cloth. The difficulty in using it to any great extent was in the fact that the seeds were so mixed with the cotton wool, and so hard to separate from it, that it took a negro slave a whole day to pick out the seeds from one pound of the fibre. Eli Whitney was a New England schoolmaster who went down to Georgia on a visit. While there, the idea struck him that it would be easy to clean the cotton if it was drawn through narrow slits in a board by the teeth of a circular saw. He made a little engine, or "gin" as he called it for short, and separated the seeds and the fibre with the greatest ease and rapidity. It was now possible to produce cotton in the South in large quantities to be

[1] This agent was called "Citizen" Genêt (Zhen-ay′), because the French objected to titles, even one so simple as "Mr."

[2] Neutral means not assisting either of two or more contending parties.

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made into cloth in the United States, or to be sent to England for use in the mills there. Eli Whitney's invention, therefore, greatly increased the wealth-producing power of the Southern States. It also made negro slavery very profitable, because in that part of the country there was plenty of vacant land where a man could grow as much cotton as he had laborers to care for it.

233. **Washington's Farewell Address.** — Washington was reëlected President in 1792. When the end of his second term drew near, he saw the danger of too long a continuance of one man in the presidential office. He refused again to become a candidate, and thus began the custom of confining the President's term to eight years at the outside. Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Jackson served for only eight years apiece, so that now the term of the President's office is limited by custom, although there is no law to that effect. Washington announced his decision in a "Farewell Address" to the American people. "The name of American," he declared, "must always exalt the just pride of Patriotism." He urged them to beware of attacks upon the Constitution and not to encourage party spirit, but to use every effort to discourage it. "Observe good faith and justice toward all nations . . . have with them as little *Political* connection as possible." He retired from office in 1797, and died at Mount Vernon two years later.

234. **New states.** — With the success of the American Revolution, the thirteen original colonies[1] became the thirteen original states. In Washington's administration three new states were added to the Union. These were Vermont, which was admitted in 1791; Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796. The land included within the limits

[1] See § 123. Some detailed information about the states may be found in the Appendix.

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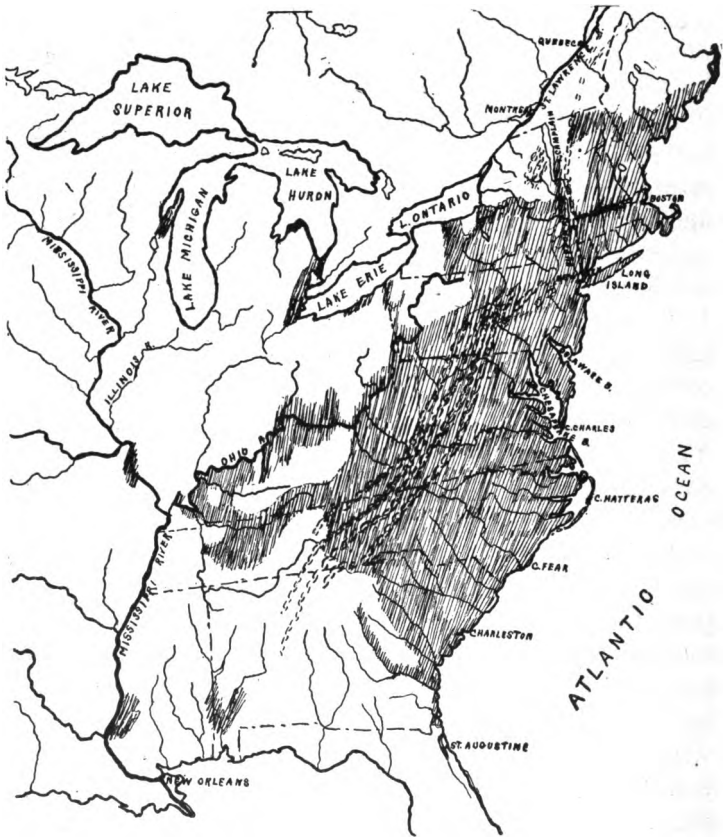
of Vermont has been claimed by New York and New Hampshire; but the Vermonters had been governing themselves since the beginning of the Revolutionary War. The



Extent of Settlement, 1800.

admission of Kentucky and Tennessee as separate states shows how fast the country west of the Allegheny Mountains was filling up.

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235. **Summary.** — The four great executive departments of the national government were established. Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, brought about the passage of laws providing for the payment of the debts of the United States and of the separate states. The money was provided by taxing many things that were brought in from abroad and liquors made in the country itself. The Indians in the Northwest attacked the settlers and defeated two armies, but were conquered by General Wayne. In 1794, a treaty with England put an end to disputes with that country, and in 1795 another with Spain secured the southern boundary of the United States and the navigation of the Mississippi. When the French Republicans tried to get aid in the United States, Washington issued the Neutrality Proclamation. Eli Whitney invented the cotton-gin. Washington refused to be elected President for the third time. He died in 1799.

JOHN ADAMS'S[1] ADMINISTRATION; RISE OF POLITICAL PARTIES

236. **Federalists and Anti-Federalists.** — The first political parties in our history as a nation were the Federalists

[1] John Adams, second President of the United States, was born in Massachusetts, October 19, 1735. He fitted himself for the practice of the law, teaching school to gain the necessary money. The excitements of the Stamp Act time greatly interested him. He became prominent in Massachusetts politics and with Samuel Adams and John Hancock went to the Continental Congress. With Jefferson and Franklin, he formed the subcommittee to draw up the Declaration of Independence and defended the policy of independence on the floor of Congress. He was the first minister to represent the United States in England. During his first audience with King George III, the latter made an incautious remark which drew from Adams the declaration: "I have no attachment, but to my own country." After serving as Vice-president and President, in 1801 he retired to Quincy, Massachusetts, where he lived for a quarter of a century. On July 4, 1826, he died consoling himself with the thought that "Thomas Jefferson still lives"; but at almost the same hour that great man also passed away at his home in Virginia.

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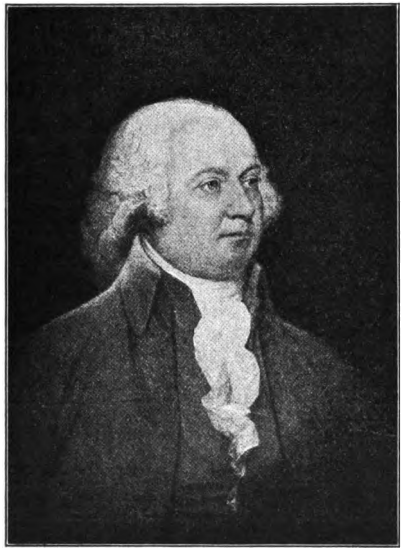
and the Anti-Federalists. These came into being when the Constitution was under discussion. The Federalists declared that they were in favor of a federal government, or one in which the several states gave up a good deal of power to the central governing body. They declared that all those who opposed their views were against federation for the word "anti" means "against." After the Constitution was adopted almost all the leading men throughout the country determined to give it a fair trial, so that these party distinctions almost disappeared. Hamilton's determination to build up, not only a federal government, but a very strong one, alarmed many thoughtful and far-seeing men. These felt that he was twisting the words of the Constitution out of their true meaning in order that he might carry out his wish to establish a strong national government.



John Adams.

237. The first Republican party.—The two most prominent men who boldly objected to the carrying out of Hamilton's plans were Thomas Jefferson and James Madison. Jefferson opposed Hamilton in the cabinet as long as he could and then resigned. He saw that the best way to spread his own views would be to establish a newspaper. He was one of the most skilful party leaders

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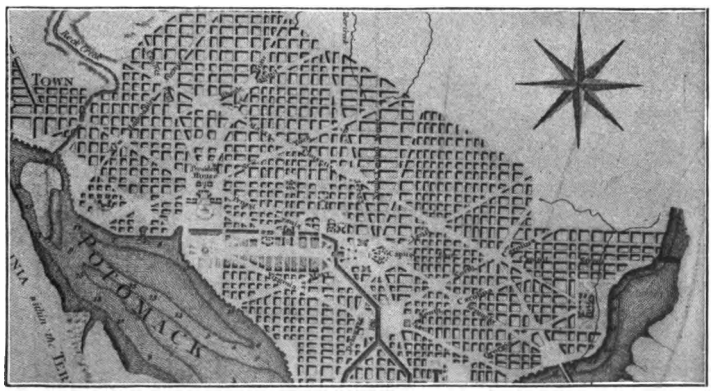
America has ever had, and gathered to his standard the discontented ones of all kinds. The new party was named Republican by Jefferson and his followers; but those who did not like them declared that the members of this party were Democrats of the French sort.

238. **Election of John Adams, 1796.** — New England was the stronghold of the Federalists, while the followers of Jefferson were most numerous in the Southern States. The voters of the Middle States were divided between the two parties. In New York and Pennsylvania, political leaders had organized party machinery more thoroughly than had been done in any other part of the country. In the election of 1796, John Adams, a Federalist, who had been Vice-president for eight years, was chosen President, but the Federalist candidate for the Vice-presidency was defeated and Jefferson was elected Vice-president in his place.

239. **Locating the capital.** — There was great discussion as to where the capital of the United States should be. Washington was inaugurated in New York; but that city



Plan of Washington, 1798.

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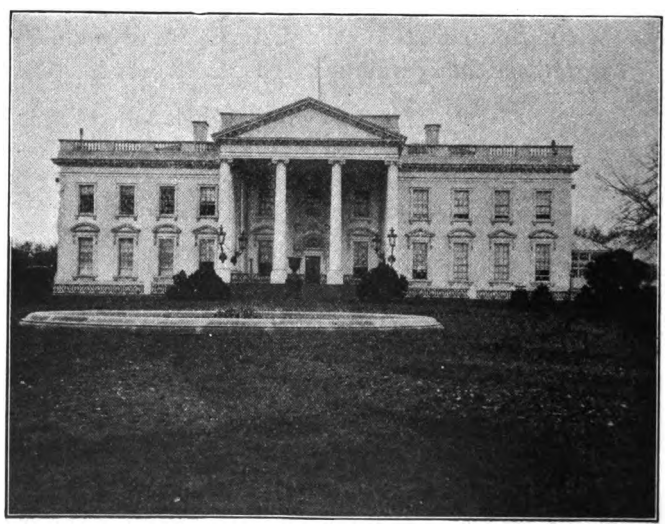
was so far away from the Southern States that the Carolinians and Virginians greatly desired a more southern location. When Hamilton's financial plans were being debated in Congress, the New Englanders and representatives from the Middle States favored them as a rule, while the Southerners were generally opposed to them. Partly to do away with this opposition, the scheme was hit upon of using Philadelphia for ten years and then moving to a permanent site on the Potomac River. The selection of the spot was confided to Washington. He picked out the country around the falls of the Potomac as the best place. Maryland and Virginia ceded to the United States their rights to this District of Columbia, as the site of the federal capital was termed, within which it was proposed to build Washington City as a capital.

240. **The city of Washington.** — Planning the new city was intrusted to a Frenchman who skilfully laid it out



The White House.

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after the fashion of a wheel, the capitol being in the center and the principal streets radiating therefrom like spokes. At some distance from the capitol was the President's mansion or White House, as it is called. The work proceeded so slowly that in 1800 when President and Mrs. Adams moved there from Philadelphia it was not yet finished; six chambers were usable and so were two rooms on the ground floor; but the principal stairs were not even built, and the public audience room was unfinished. The city itself was hardly more than a few scattered collections of buildings in the midst of a wilderness.

241. **More trouble with France.** — French governments were now changing with great rapidity, so that no sooner was an arrangement made with one government than it would be overturned, and the whole thing would have to be done over again. Washington, and after him Adams, sent ministers to France to try to smooth over the trouble, but they did not find this a very easy thing to do. The Frenchmen refused to receive an American minister because the United States had not gone to war with England as they had hoped, but had made a treaty [1] with her instead. Adams then sent three commissioners to see what they could do. Certain Frenchmen [2] came to them, after their arrival at Paris, and told them that they must give a quarter of a million dollars as pocket money to the authorities, or they would be turned out of France. If they gave the money, one of their number might return to America and arrange for the United States to lend a large sum of money to France for war purposes. The commissioners refused to bribe the governors of France and returned home with their story.

[1] This was Jay's Treaty, see § 228.

[2] Instead of giving the names of these French emissaries in their letters to the Secretary of State, the American commissioners designated them by the letters X, Y, and Z, so that the incident is termed "The X, Y, Z Affair."

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242. Warfare with France, 1798–1799. — The excitement in America over the actions of the French was tremendous. "Millions for defence; not one cent for tribute!" was the cry. A provisional army was raised with Washington at its head and Hamilton second in command. Vessels were built for the navy, and some French ships were captured. There was now another overturn in France, and Napoleon, the new ruler, thought he had difficulties enough in Europe without stirring up any more in America, and a treaty was signed in 1800.

243. Unpopular laws. — By this time the strife between political parties in America had grown very bitter. Some of the fiercest opponents of the Federalist policy were newspaper editors, many of whom were foreigners. The Federalists who were in control in Congress passed a series of laws to punish these men and turn them out of the country.[1] They strongly objected to being treated so, and as most of these objectors were Republicans, Jefferson and Madison took up their cause. They got the states of Virginia and Kentucky to pass a series of resolutions known as the Virginia and Kentucky Resolves, declaring against the exercise of so much power by the national government.

244. The election of 1800. — The people, with the exception of the New Englanders, now turned to Jefferson. When the electoral votes for President were counted, it was found that the Republican candidates, Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, had many more votes than Adams and Pinckney, their Federalist opponents. As Jefferson and Burr had the same number of votes, it was necessary for the House of Representatives to declare which of them should be President and which should be Vice-president.

[1] These were the Alien and Sedition Laws. The word "alien" means a foreigner who has not obtained the rights of citizenship. Sedition means the raising of a political commotion which is not great enough to be termed a rebellion.

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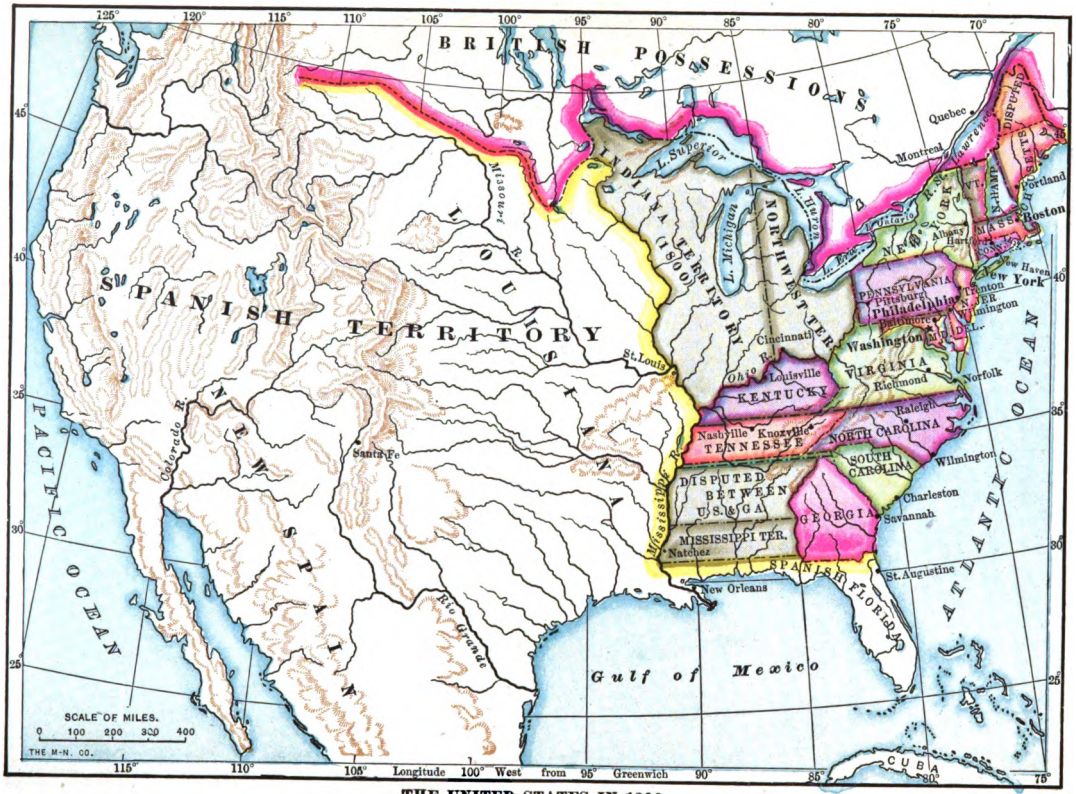

THE UNITED STATES IN 1800.

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The Federalists had a large majority in the House. They detested Jefferson, and for a long time refused to declare him President, although every one in the country had Jefferson and not Burr in mind when he cast his ballot for the Presidential candidate.[1] In the end and with a very bad grace they declared Jefferson President.

245. Summary. — Two political parties were formed, the Federalist or Hamiltonian Party and the Republican or Jeffersonian Party. In 1796, John Adams, the Federalist candidate, was elected President. In 1800, the government was removed to Washington City. There were troubles with France in Adams's administration which were ended by a treaty in 1800. In that year, Jefferson was elected President.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION; THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

246. Jefferson's first inaugural. — Washington had had a great deal of ceremony and display at his inauguration, and so too had Adams. The latter had gone to the place where he was to take the oath of office in a coach drawn by six cream-colored horses. Jefferson[2] determined to do

[1] The Constitution originally provided that the presidential electors should vote for two persons; one of whom must not be a citizen of the same state as the elector. The person receiving the largest number of electoral votes should be President; the one receiving the next largest number should be Vice-president. In the case of a tie, the House of Representatives, voting by states, decided which should hold the first office. This arrangement had worked awkwardly because in 1796, it had resulted in providing a President and Vice-president belonging to opposing parties. In case of the death of the President his political opponent would have succeeded him, which might have led to great confusion. In 1804, the Twelfth Amendment was adopted providing that the Presidential Electors should designate on their ballots which person voted for should be President and which Vice-president.

[2] Thomas Jefferson, the third President of the United States, was born in Virginia, April 13, 1743. His father was a surveyor who had accumulated many large pieces of choice land. Jefferson was very studious as a boy and

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Thomas Jefferson.

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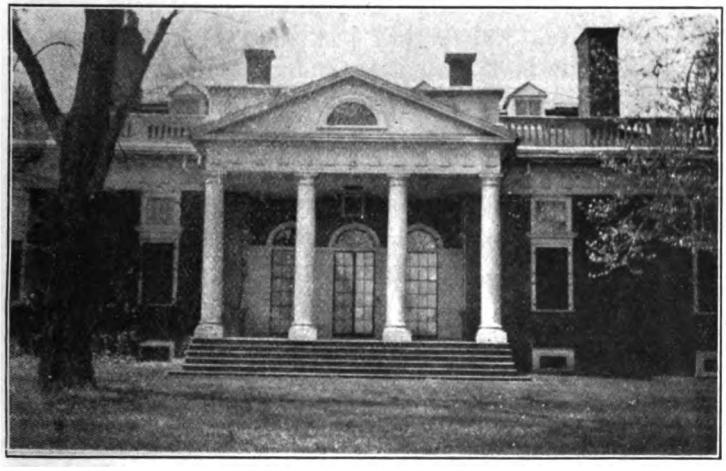
away with as much ceremonial as he possibly could and to introduce democratic simplicity into his dealings with his fellow-citizens. When the time came for his inauguration, he left the boarding-house, where he was living in Washington, and accompanied by a few friends walked to the capitol and read his inaugural address. In this he set forth the essential principles of American government



Monticello.

which were to guide him in his administration. Among these he enumerated equal and exact justice to all men, peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations,

young man and was interested in history, constitutional law, and natural science. He had wonderful facility in putting into striking phrases the thoughts of the day. It was in 1774 that he wrote "The God who gave us life, gave us liberty." He succeeded Franklin as American minister to France, and after his retirement from the presidency in 1809, he lived at his charming residence of Monticello (Mŏn-tē-sĕl′lō), where all the leading politicians visited him to secure advice from this greatest American political sage. He died there on July 4, 1826, fifty years after the adoption of the great Declaration which he wrote.

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entangling alliances with none, the support of the state governments in all their rights, preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigor, the honest payment of our debts, freedom of religion, of the press, and of the person.

247. **Reorganizing the government.** — For Secretary of State, Jefferson picked out James Madison who had long been his right-hand man; for Secretary of the Treasury, he selected Albert Gallatin. The latter was a foreigner who had come from Switzerland. He had already served in Congress and had attracted Jefferson's attention by his republicanism and by his ability to handle financial matters in debate. Jefferson and Gallatin cut down the expenses of the government to the lowest possible point. Congress, which was now in the hands of the Republicans, fell in with their wishes. It did away with the internal revenue taxes that had brought about the Whiskey Rebellion and thereby made it possible to discharge a very large number of tax collectors and other officers. It also provided for the reorganization of the judiciary on a much smaller scale.

248. **Removals from office.** — When Jefferson entered upon his duties, he found that every official was a Federalist. He felt it to be necessary to change the minor officers of the United States courts in order that the republicans might have something to say in their management. He also refused to permit commissions to be delivered to officers whom Adams had appointed at the very last moment. In addition, he determined to remove a few of the most bitter Federalist partisans. All this he justified on the ground that the Republicans, having been placed in charge of the government by the voters, had the right to control it. This could only be done by removing the Federalist officeholders, because as he said, "Few die and none re-

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sign." The new policy of economy was so successful that within a few years the national debt had been greatly decreased, although Jefferson had in the meantime conducted a successful naval war and had purchased Louisiana from France.

249. The Barbary pirates, 1801–1804. — On the northern coast of Africa lay a group of Barbary States. Instead of engaging in honest commerce, the people who lived there sailed out into the Mediterranean and into the Atlantic and captured any vessels that came in their way. European nations, like England and France, instead of sending fleets of war-ships to put down these free-booters, found it cheaper to pay them to stop capturing their vessels. As long as our commerce was under British protection, it was not molested, but when we became independent of England, the pirates began to capture our ships. Washington and Adams paid the Barbary powers in order to protect American vessels, but Jefferson decided to stop their proceedings by force. He sent one fleet after another to attack them and finally brought the corsairs to agree to keep their hands off American ships without being paid for it. The most brilliant incident in this little naval war is connected with the name of Stephen Decatur who afterwards became a commodore. The American frigate *Philadelphia* had run aground on a shoal outside of the harbor of Tripoli[1] (Trĭp′o-lĭ). Before she could get off, the Tripolitans attacked her and captured her. Later they floated her and took her into the harbor to refit her for service against the Americans. On a little vessel in the darkness of night Decatur and a volunteer crew sailed into the harbor, set her on fire, and made good their escape (1804). There were many other heroic exploits in the course of this naval war, but this is the best known.

[1] The war is sometimes spoken of as the Tripolitan War.

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250. **Louisiana.** — Napoleon Bonaparte now conceived the plan of reëstablishing the French colonial empire in America. As one step in carrying out this scheme he induced the Spaniards to restore Louisiana to France. At about the time the news of this change reached America, the Spaniards at New Orleans gave notice that the Americans could no longer deposit their goods there while awaiting trans-shipment.[1] As long as Spain held Louisiana, its possession by a foreign power was not felt by the United States because Spain was very weak, and was growing weaker every year. With it in the hands of France, the case would be very different owing to the energy and restlessness of the French people. The settlers of Kentucky and Tennessee and of the other western country were mostly Republicans and were greatly annoyed by Spain's action. Jefferson himself was aroused. He wrote to Robert R. Livingston, who was then American minister at Paris that, rather than see France in possession of Louisiana, the United States would combine with Great Britain to destroy French power upon the sea. He sent James Monroe, a Virginian, in whom he had the greatest confidence, to Paris to aid Livingston and instructed them to buy New Orleans and the country to the eastward.

251. **The Louisiana Purchase, 1803.** — It happened that shortly before Monroe's arrival, the French minister of foreign affairs startled Livingston by asking him if the United States would not like to buy Louisiana, — all of it, New Orleans and the rest. This was entirely beyond the instructions that Jefferson had given to Livingston and Monroe, but the possession of this great territory extending westwardly from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains would be of such tremendous importance to the United States that the American ministers decided to exceed their

[1] For this right of deposit see § 229.

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THE UNITED STATES IN 1803.

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instructions and buy it. The price paid was a little over fifteen million dollars. After the negotiators had signed their names to the treaty, Livingston said, "We have lived long, but this is the noblest work of our lives!" There were then thousands of people living in New Orleans, St. Louis, and other parts of Louisiana, but neither Jefferson nor any one else for a moment suggested that their consent should be asked as to whether they wished to be joined to the United States or not.[1]

252. Lewis and Clark explore the West to the Pacific, 1804–1806. — Even before Louisiana was actually purchased, Jefferson had set on foot an expedition to explore the country westward from the Mississippi to the Pacific. For this he selected two remarkable men, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, the latter a brother of the Revolutionary general, George Rogers Clark. Starting from St. Louis in 1804, Lewis and Clark, with a small party, ascended the Missouri in boats. When the cold weather came on, they went into winter quarters within the present limits of North Dakota. The next spring, they set out again and journeyed up the Missouri until it became so small that they could go no farther even in canoes. They then crossed over to a little stream that flowed into the Columbia River; floating down this stream in boats, after many tremendous adventures, they came within sight of the ocean and were delighted to hear the distant roar of the breakers. That winter they spent not far from the mouth of the Columbia, and the next year, 1806, safely returned to St. Louis. In all this wonderful

[1] No bounds were assigned to Louisiana in the treaty, but it included New Orleans and the neighboring country on the eastern bank of the Mississippi and all the land between that river and the Rocky Mountains with the possible exception of Texas. Its possession enabled the American people to expand their settlements beyond the Mississippi and finally to acquire and colonize the Pacific slope.

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journey by boat and by horseback and on foot, they met with many wild animals, grizzly bears, and rattlesnakes. But what troubled them more than anything else, even than hostile Indians, were the mosquitoes and flies which often beset them night and day. This expedition not only brought knowledge of this region to civilized men, but it was an important element in securing to the United States the land lying in the valley of the Columbia River.

253. **Burr's conspiracy.** — Jefferson had soon come to distrust Burr, the Vice-president. In 1804, when a new election was held, Governor Clinton of New York was selected for that place and Burr was practically turned out of political life. He thought out a curious plan of conquering some part of Texas from the Spaniards and making a settlement there. Possibly, he did not intend to join his conquest to the United States, but meant to rule it himself. The scheme was a wild one and could only have been carried out by a man who had a great deal of money and very strong and loyal friends in Louisiana. Burr started on his expedition, but before he had gone very far, Jefferson heard of it. He issued a proclamation directing all good citizens to seize Burr and his companions. Those whom Burr had trusted at New Orleans proved faithless. He tried to escape by leaving his men and gaining Spanish Florida. He was captured near Mobile and was tried for treason, but was not convicted. After this, he had no more share in public life but lived in retirement in Europe and New York until his death.

254. **The first steamboat, 1807.** — Thousands of years, ever since the time of Noah, people had navigated the water in sailing vessels or in boats rowed with oars. Many men had tried to arrange a steam-engine in a boat so that it could be driven against wind and tide faster than any boat had ever gone. All the early attempts had failed. Robert

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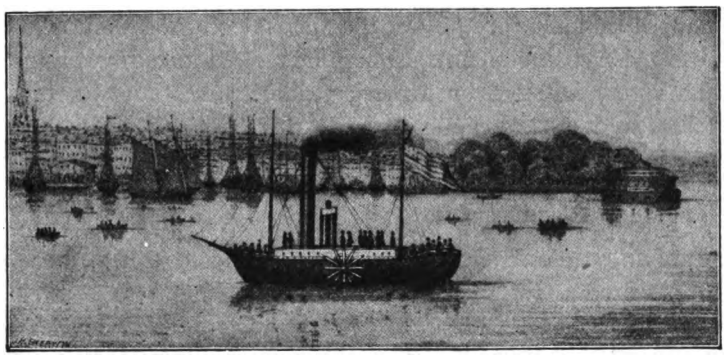
Fulton hit on the idea of placing paddle-wheels on the side of a boat and turning them around rapidly by means of a steam-engine within the boat itself. He interested Robert R. Livingston in his scheme and named his first boat the *Clermont* from the latter's estate on the Hudson. When she was ready for launching, the people laughed and called her "Fulton's Folly," declaring that she would never move a foot. On August 11, 1807, to the surprise of the people gathered on the wharf, the *Clermont* moved slowly



The *Clermont* on the Hudson.

away upstream. She kept on moving, reached Albany safely and in due time returned to New York. Other steamboats were built to navigate the rivers and sounds of the coast, and then the use of them was extended to the lakes and rivers of the interior. Fulton's invention was one of the most important for the United States, because it very greatly aided in the settlement and development of the country west of the Allegheny Mountains.

255. Foreign slave trade forbidden, 1808. — When the Constitution was drawn up, the South Carolinians insisted upon allowing the importation of negro slaves from abroad for at least twenty years longer. In 1807, Congress passed

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a law forbidding the importation of negro slaves after January 1, 1808. The slave trade continued between the states, but no more slaves were brought in from abroad except those that were smuggled in by way of Cuba, or over the Mexican border.

256. **Troubles with England and France.** — Fighting was now going on in Europe more fiercely than ever. On the one side, Napoleon had conquered nearly all the countries of the continent; on the other side, England had driven the French and their allies from the ocean.[1] This made it difficult for the two parties to continue their warfare. Englishmen and Frenchmen needed many things that grew in Asia or America, like coffee and cotton. These and other necessities were carried to them in neutral vessels,[2] most of which were American. The French and the British now thought that the best way to injure the other party would be to keep the neutrals from supplying their enemies with these goods. They therefore seized neutral vessels and sold them and their cargoes. These measures greatly distressed American commerce.

257. **The English impress American seamen.** — The British angered the Americans in another way. They stopped their vessels and took from them seamen whom they said were British. A good many of these were British sailors who had deserted from that naval service because they were so badly treated; but many were Americans, for it was difficult to tell an American from an Englishman. Moreover, the British held to the idea

[1] The wars growing out of the French Revolution were ended by the Peace of Amiens in 1802. In 1803, a new series of wars began which were caused largely by the ambition of Napoleon to make himself and the French masters of all Europe. Napoleon now called himself emperor.

[2] A neutral vessel is one flying the flag of a nation that does not take sides with either warring party.

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that "once an Englishman, always an Englishman." They denied that America could naturalize[1] an English subject and thus make him an American.

258. **The Embargo, 1807.** — Jefferson might well have declared war against either England or France, or against both of them. Instead of so doing, he thought that if he could cut these countries off from the supplies that were carried to them in American ships, they would soon suffer so severely that they would be more just to the United States. He got Congress to pass an act forbidding any American ship to sail out of any harbor of the United States; this was called the embargo.

259. **The failure of the Embargo.** — France and England were so intent on injuring one another that they paid very little attention to Jefferson's embargo. On the other hand, it occasioned great distress in the United States. It prevented the southerners from sending their crops of corn and tobacco to foreign markets, and it harmed the ship owners of New England and the Middle States, because their vessels no longer had anything to do. The New Englanders thereupon set to work building mills to weave the southern cotton into cloth and to manufacture many other things. The embargo hurt the United States so much more than it seemed to be hurting any one else, that Congress suddenly repealed it. In its place, Congress passed a law prohibiting all trade with Great Britain or France, but permitting it with other countries. This was known as the Non-Intercourse Act.

[1] Naturalization is the process by which a foreigner acquires the rights of a citizen. In the United States, such a foreigner must have lived five years in that country, and must have gone through certain legal requirements. He then receives a paper declaring that he is an American citizen. Even now foreign countries which require every one to serve in the army for a few years deny the power of these papers to relieve their subjects from military duty, if they return to their old homes.

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260. *Leopard* and *Chesapeake*, June, 1807. — The British now added to the excitement against them by impressing seamen, not only from merchant vessels, but actually from an American warship. This unlucky vessel was the frigate *Chesapeake*. She sailed from Norfolk, Virginia, bound to the Mediterranean. The last things that had been put aboard had not yet been stowed away and everything was in confusion when the British warship *Leopard* sailed alongside and demanded the surrender of four persons who were declared to be deserters from British vessels. The Americans refused. The *Leopard* opened fire. After some delay a gun was loaded on the *Chesapeake* and was fired by means of a hot coal which was brought from the cook's galley. Then her flag was hauled down; an armed party came from the *Leopard*, took away the seamen whom they claimed, and handed the *Chesapeake* back to her own officers. Jefferson could think of nothing better to do than to forbid Americans furnishing food, water, or any supplies whatever to British vessels, and to demand an apology from the British government.

261. Admission of Ohio, 1802. — Settlers had thronged to the eastern part of the Northwest Territory in such numbers that this portion of it was admitted to the Union as the state of Ohio with the same boundaries that it has to-day. The act of Congress enabling the people of Ohio to form a state constitution was approved by President Jefferson on April 30, 1802. The constitution was framed by a convention in November of that year, and the act of Congress recognizing Ohio as a state was passed in February, 1803. The date of the admission, therefore, is sometimes given as 1802 and sometimes as 1803.

262. Summary. — Jefferson introduced simplicity into public ceremonies. In his inaugural, he advocated friendship with all nations, the support of the state governments,

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and individual freedom. With Gallatin, his Secretary of the Treasury, he established a strict economy. He removed a few Federalist officials so that the Republicans might have some share in the government. He sent war vessels to the Mediterranean and compelled the Barbary pirates to respect the flag of the United States. He bought Louisiana from France, 1803, and thus gave the country a chance to expand. In 1807, Robert Fulton succeeded in making the first successful steamboat. The importation of slaves was forbidden in 1808. Jefferson had much trouble with France and with England and tried to compel them to treat Americans fairly by putting an end to all trade with them. The British even attacked one of our warships.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

The First Three Presidents, 1789–1809

1789–1797
WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION

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  - Nation's Debts
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    - Domestic.
    - How Paid.
  - First National Tariff.
  - Whiskey Rebellion, 1794.
  - United States Bank.
  - Dollars and Cents.
- *First Census, 1790.*
- *Indian Troubles in the West*
  - Two Armies Defeated.
  - Wayne's Campaign.
- *Another Treaty with England, 1794.*
- *Treaty with Spain, 1795.*
- *Trouble with France—Neutrality Proclamation.*
- *Eli Whitney and His Cotton Gin, 1793.*
- *Washington's Farewell Address.*
- *New States*
  - Vermont, 1791.
  - Kentucky, 1792.
  - Tennessee, 1796.

THE GOVERNMENT ORGANIZED

1797–1801
JOHN ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION

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  - Federalists and Anti-Federalists.
  - The First Republican Party.
- *Election of John Adams, 1796.*
- *The National Capital*
  - Location.
  - City of Washington.
- *More Trouble with France*
  - X.Y.Z. Affair.
  - Treaty of Peace, 1800.
- *Alien and Sedition Laws.*
- *Election of 1800.*

RISE OF POLITICAL PARTIES

1801–1809.
JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION

- *Jefferson's First Inaugural.*
- *Reorganizing the Government.*
- *Removals from Office.*
- *Barbary Pirates — Tripolitan War.*
- *Louisiana*
  - Restored to France.
  - Purchased, 1803.
  - Explorations by Lewis and Clark.
- *Burr's Conspiracy.*
- *First Steamboat.*
- *Foreign Slave Trade Forbidden, 1808.*
- *Troubles with England and France.*
- *Impressment of American Seamen.*
- *Embargo Act*
  - Effect on United States.
  - Repeal.
  - Non-Intercourse Act.
- *"Leopard" and "Chesapeake."*
- *Admission of Ohio, 1802.*

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

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IX

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1809–1817

THE WAR OF 1812

263. Madison elected President, 1808. — Following Washington's example, Jefferson refused to be a candidate for a second reëlection to the office of President. As his successor, he picked out James Madison, who, next to himself, had been the most prominent man in founding the Republican party and in carrying on the government since 1801. Like Washington and Jefferson, Madison was a Virginian, and Jefferson was glad to have a man from his own state succeed him. Jefferson's policy had been so generally successful that there was little opposition to the election of Madison as his successor.

James Madison.

264. Haughty attitude of British statesmen. — After his inauguration as President on March 4, 1809, Madison continued to press the British government for redress of the *Chesapeake* affair and for a change in British commercial policy toward America. The British said that they were

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sorry for that affair, but they refused utterly to give up the practice of taking British seamen from any vessel on which they might be found. This haughty attitude of British statesmen, not only to our representatives at London, but even to the President himself, greatly excited the Americans against them. To this hatred was now added the suspicion that the British in Canada were inciting the Indians in the Northwest to attack the American settlers on the western frontier.

265. Tippecanoe, 1811.—Probably the ablest Indian who comes into American history was Tecumseh (Te-kŭm′sĕ). He and his brother, who was known as "the Prophet," set on foot a great Indian confederation with the object of putting an end to the founding of any more white towns and cities in the western country. In this project they were assisted by British fur-traders and possibly by some British officials. William Henry Harrison, who was then governor of Indiana Territory, got together a small army and advanced to the capture of Tecumseh's stronghold. The Indians attacked him near Tippecanoe (Tĭp′pē-kȧ-nōō′) Creek. For a time the fighting was fierce, but finally, the Americans prevailed, although not until about one quarter of them had been killed or wounded.

266. War declared, June, 1812.—When Congress met in November, 1811, many new men took their seats in the House of Representatives. Among these were Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun. The latter was only thirty years of age, but he at once placed himself at the head of those members who were determined to bring about a declaration of war against Great Britain. He was a South Carolinian and commanded attention by the clearness of his reasoning and the eloquence with which he conveyed his thoughts to his fellow-men. Henry Clay came from Kentucky, having emigrated to that state from Virginia

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some years before. He had already served as a senator and was now chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. Calhoun and Clay and their followers carried the members of Congress with them and war was declared against Great Britain on June 18, 1812.

267. Loss of Detroit, August, 1812.—Calhoun and the war party declared that the conquest of Canada would be

very easy. They entirely forgot that the United States had almost no army, almost no military stores, and hardly any money in the treasury. Getting together a force, General William Hull made his way through Ohio to Detroit. After strengthening the garrison there, he crossed over to the Canadian side and marched down to capture Fort Malden. He delayed so long that the British General Brock with an army of veterans and a large body of Indians marched to the relief of the fort. Upon this Hull retreated to his own side of the river, and when Brock crossed over and began to advance towards Detroit, Hull surrendered the fort and his army on the morning of

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August 16, 1812. This was not the only disaster, for at almost the same hour, the garrison of Fort Dearborn at Chicago was massacred by an Indian war party.

268. Perry's victory on Lake Erie, September, 1813.— The Americans determined to win back that great section of the Lake Country that had been so easily lost in 1812. General Harrison was given the command of a land force and Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry was sent to Lake Erie to build a fleet of gunboats, and to sink or capture the British fleet on that lake and protect Harrison's line of communication. Perry did everything that he was told to do. He completed some vessels that had already been begun and built others from the trees growing along the shore. When all was ready he sailed forth to attack the British fleet. His flagship was named the *Lawrence* from that famous captain (§ 277) whose immortal words, "Don't give up the ship!" Perry had inscribed on a banner and hoisted at his masthead. In the midst of the battle, the *Lawrence* being disabled, Perry rowed in a small boat to another ship and continued the fight, but, when all was over, he returned to the shattered hull of his own vessel and there received the surrender of the British. "We have met the enemy and they are ours!" thus he announced the victory to his commanding officer.

269. Battle of the Thames, October, 1813.—General Harrison at once followed up the advantage which Perry's control of the water gave him. He reoccupied Detroit and crossing over into Canada defeated the British in the battle of the Thames. Among the slain on the British side was Tecumseh, the Indian chief.

270. Macdonough's victory at Plattsburg, September, 1814.—Other American armies invaded Canada at other points. One of them captured York, now Toronto, and burned public buildings there. There were also hard-

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fought battles at Chippewa (Chĭp′pę-wä) and Lundy's Lane. In the end, the Americans were forced out of Canada and a British army advanced southward by the Lake Champlain route to invade the United States. Commodore Macdonough, with an American naval force, lay at anchor in Plattsburg Bay on the western side of Lake Champlain. The British fleet attacked him with vigor and skill, but he managed his vessels so well that in three hours all of the British vessels were either sunk, captured, or sailing back to the Canadian end of the lake. The destruction of this British fleet put an end to all attempts at an invasion of the United States from Canada.

271. **Burning of Washington, 1814.** — Meantime the British had sent a fleet and an army to the Chesapeake to capture Washington and Baltimore and do all the damage they could. They encountered little resistance on their march to the capital. While there they set fire to the capitol and the White House, and then retreated in great haste to their shipping.[1] Next they appeared before Baltimore, but were beaten off.

272. **The "Star-Spangled Banner."** — It was while the British fleet was lying off Baltimore ready to bombard the town that Francis Scott Key, a young American, visited the ships to arrange for an exchange of prisoners. He was obliged to remain on board during the fighting. All that night he watched "the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air," and the next morning as day dawned he looked

[1] While Madison and Monroe were trying to organize armed resistance to the invading British, Mrs. Madison remained at the White House. Nobody expected the enemy would enter the capital city, and she had invited guests to dinner. When word came from the President that she must flee, she put what valuables she could into her hand-bag and entering a carriage was soon out of danger. Washington's picture, valuable papers, and large silver ornaments had been sent away a little earlier. The British officers ate the dinner that had been prepared for the President's family, and then set fire to the house.

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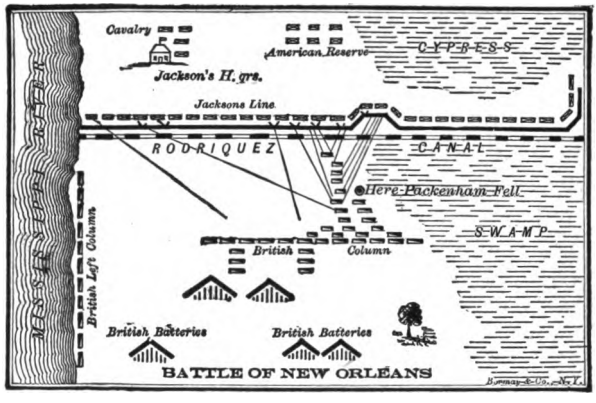
eagerly at the forts to see if our flag was still waving in the breeze. In these anxious moments he composed the stirring patriotic song, "The Star-Spangled Banner." After their failure at Baltimore, the British sailed away from the Chesapeake.

273. **Battle of New Orleans, 1815.** — The activity of the British in 1814 was due to the fact that Napoleon had been overcome for a while in Europe and therefore troops could



be spared for America. Besides the expeditions from Canada and to the Chesapeake, the British fitted out a great force to capture New Orleans and begin the conquest of the Mississippi Valley. The time was well chosen, because a terrible Indian war was occupying the attention of General Andrew Jackson of Tennessee and the people of the Southwest. Jackson was a man of tremendous energy, and conquered the Indians in time to get to New Orleans before the British. He fortified a carefully selected spot below the city, and then waited until the enemy marched up to within point-blank range of his muskets. The Americans fired one volley and then

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another. Back the British went and came on again, but finally after suffering terrible loss, they retreated to their ships. This glorious victory of Jackson and his westerners was won on January 8, 1815, but a treaty of peace (§ 280) had already been signed December 24, 1814, by the commissioners of the two powers, although the news of this event had not yet reached the United States.

274. Summary. — Madison was elected President to follow Jefferson. He tried to induce the British and French to favor Americans, but in vain. In 1811, the Indians of the Northwest attacked a body of United States soldiers at Tippecanoe, and were defeated. War was declared against Great Britain, June, 1812. In August Detroit was surrendered by its commander. Perry's victory on Lake Erie in 1813 restored the American hold on the Great Lakes, and Macdonough's victory on Lake Champlain in 1814 put an end to British invasions from Canada. In that year the British burned Washington and early in 1815 were terribly beaten by Jackson at New Orleans.

THE WAR ON THE OCEAN

275. The American and British navies. — While all this fighting was going on, American seamen were gaining glory on the ocean. The English navy numbered, in those days, more than eight hundred vessels of all sizes, while there were only about a dozen fighting ships belonging to the United States. Madison thought that the best thing to do with them was to anchor them securely in the largest harbors. He reckoned without the spirit of the naval officers or of the enthusiasm of the people over naval victories. Among the few American ships, there were three heavy frigates. These were built with great solidity and were armed with very powerful guns for ships of their

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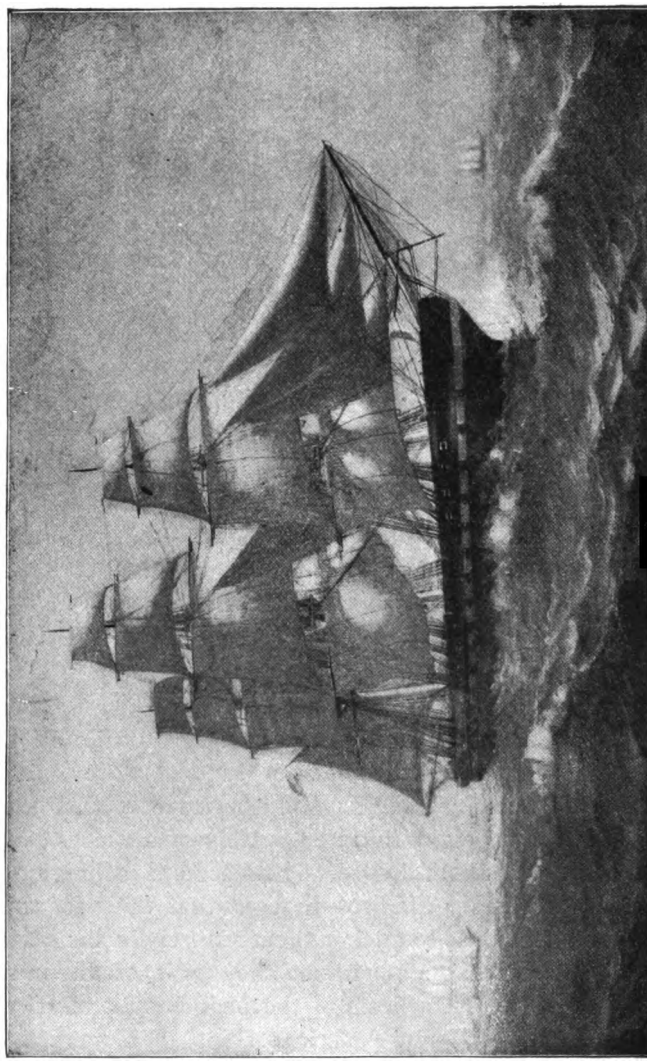

The *Constitution*.

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class. The most famous of them was the *Constitution*, which came to be called "Old Ironsides" by the people. The naval authorities directed her captain, Isaac Hull, to take her from Chesapeake Bay to New York, where it was intended to station her as guardship. While on his way, he was chased by a British squadron, one of the vessels being a fast-sailing frigate, the *Guerrière*. The *Constitution* escaped, but Hull could not take her to New York so he went to Boston and then sailed from that port before new orders reached him.

276. ***Constitution* and *Guerrière*.** — After cruising for two or three weeks without sighting any vessel of the enemy, the *Guerrière* came in sight. This time she was alone and the *Constitution* steered straight for her. For thirty minutes the fight raged, and then the *Guerrière* was a wreck upon the water with seventy-nine of her crew killed and wounded. She was so badly injured that Captain Hull could not take her into port in triumph. For years and years, one English vessel after another fought single ships of the enemy and in two hundred such engagements had lost only six. The *Guerrière* was a little smaller than the *Constitution* and not so heavily armed, but the speed with which she was destroyed startled the people of Great Britain. They declared that the *Constitution* was no frigate at all but was a "line of battle ship in disguise." This action was fought on the 19th of August, 1812. Before the year came to a close, two other English frigates surrendered, one to the *Constitution*, now commanded by Captain Bainbridge, the other to the *United States*, commanded by Captain Decatur. These three British frigates were all smaller than their American captors, but on October 17 the American warship, the *Wasp*, encountered a British brig, the *Frolic*, which was more heavily armed than was she. The result was the same. Within three-

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quarters of an hour the British vessel lay a wreck upon the water with ninety of her crew of one hundred and ten killed or wounded.

277. ***Chesapeake* and *Shannon*.** — British naval officers now realized that American victories were not due entirely to the greater power of their ships, but were more especially owing to the discipline and careful training of the men behind the guns. Some of the British captains set to work to bring their ships into the same splendid condition that the American ships were in. Among these was Captain Broke of the frigate *Shannon*. He encountered the ill-fated *Chesapeake* off Boston Harbor. Her commander was James Lawrence. He had a fresh undrilled crew, but made a splendid fight before he was mortally wounded; as he lay dying, he murmured to those around him, "Don't give up the ship!" But she was surrendered by her officers. For this exploit Captain Broke was looked upon in England as a national naval hero.

278. **The *Essex*.** — In the last year of the war most of the American vessels were securely blockaded in ports by powerful English fleets. Most of those that did get to sea were captured sooner or later. One of them, to make a long and daring cruise before she fell into British hands, was the *Essex*, commanded by Captain David Porter. She sailed thousands of miles away from the United States into the Pacific Ocean. For months Captain Porter cruised in the southern Pacific, occasionally picking up English whaling vessels and merchant ships. At length she was captured by two English vessels while inside a harbor near Valparaiso (Val-pä-rī′so). One of the youngsters, or midshipmen, on the *Essex* was David Glasgow Farragut (Făr′-a̤-gŭt), who grew up to be the most famous admiral in our history.

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279. Privateering. — Although the naval warships were kept in port, for the most part, by the British squadrons in the later years of the war, private armed vessels, or privateers, as they were called, continually got to sea and ravaged English commerce. Some of these privateers were full-rigged ships, but others were small schooners. They carried one or more large guns and smaller ones according to their size. They sought British merchantmen, even in the waters surrounding the British islands. Their activity finally made it almost impossible for merchants of London and Liverpool and other ports to send their ships to sea even on coasting voyages. The privateers brought money to their owners and helped on the national cause by making many influential Englishmen sincerely desirous of peace.

280. The Treaty of Ghent, December, 1814. — Almost from the beginning of the contest American and British commissioners had been negotiating at Ghent (Gĕnt). At first the British, although they were still fighting Napoleon, were not at all anxious for peace, because they hoped to conquer a good part of the United States and keep it. When this at length seemed to be impossible, they took a more lively interest in putting an end to the contest, and a treaty was signed which left to the United States all the territory that it had had at the beginning of the war. Nothing was said in the treaty about impressment, but the guns of the frigate *Constitution* had made any such statement unnecessary. The worst thing about the treaty was that the rights of American fishermen to use the unoccupied coasts of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland for the purposes of drying fish, and other privileges connected with the fisheries, were not confirmed, so that since this war our fishermen have been deprived of many of their old privileges.

281. The Hartford Convention, 1814–1815. — The war had never been popular in New England, for northern

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people felt that they had been drawn into it, against their interests and without good reasons, by the Southerners who ruled the government at Washington. There were still a good many Federalists of the old sort living within New England. They held a meeting or convention at Hartford in Connecticut and drew up certain resolutions setting forth the rights of the states under the federal Constitution in almost the same phrases that Jefferson and Madison had used in 1798–1799. They also demanded that the New England states should be permitted to retain the proceeds of national taxes collected within them for paying the expenses of their own defence. Commissioners actually went to Washington to lay these propositions before the authorities there and to make arrangements for collecting New England's share of the taxes. They arrived there almost at the same moment that news came of Jackson's great victory at New Orleans and the signing of the treaty at Ghent. They returned home amidst the laughter of the people. The war of 1812 in its ending, therefore, was an important landmark in the growth of the spirit of American unity. It also made our people feel much more self-reliant and able to take care of themselves. For this reason it has sometimes been called the Second War of Independence.

282. Summary. — American naval vessels and seamen won great renown on the ocean, especially the frigate *Constitution* became famous. On the other hand, the frigate *Chesapeake* was captured by the British as were other vessels, notably the *Essex*. A treaty of peace was signed at Ghent in December, 1814. By this the limits of the United States remained as they were, but the rights of fishermen in Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were limited. The New Englanders disliked the war. They held a convention at Hartford, 1814, and proposed to diminish the power of the national government.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

Madison's Administration, 1809–1817 — The War of 1812

- MADISON ELECTED PRESIDENT, 1808.
- ATTITUDE OF BRITISH STATESMEN.
- ATTACK ON TIPPECANOE, 1811.
- WAR DECLARED AGAINST GREAT BRITAIN.
- INVASION OF CANADA
  - *Loss of Detroit.*
  - *Perry's Victory.*
  - *Battle of the Thames, 1813.*
  - *Macdonough's Victory at Plattsburg.*
- BRITISH EXPEDITION TO THE CHESAPEAKE
  - *The Burning of Washington, 1814.*
  - *Appearance before Baltimore.*
  - *The "Star-Spangled Banner."*
- BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS, 1815.
- WAR ON THE OCEAN
  - *American and British Navies.*
  - *"Constitution" and "Guerrière."*
  - *"Chesapeake" and "Shannon."*
  - *The "Essex."*
  - *Privateering.*
- TREATY OF GHENT, 1814.
- HARTFORD CONVENTION, 1814–1815.

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X

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION, 1817–1825; ERA OF GOOD FEELING

283. Era of Good Feeling. — The election of Monroe, a Republican, in 1816, marked the downfall of the Federalists. In 1820, they failed to name a candidate and Monroe's election was nearly unanimous.[1] He was President for eight years, 1817–1825.[2] His first term was a period of rest from political strife which has been called for that reason the "Era of Good Feeling." As his second term came to its close, so many of the leading men in the country and in his cabinet desired to succeed him as President that the era of good feeling came to a sudden ending.

James Monroe.

[1] It is said that one of the electors purposely voted against Monroe, because he was afraid that if he did not, Monroe would be unanimously chosen, and that particular elector was determined that Washington should be the only man to be thus honored, — and Washington is the only President who has ever received the votes of all the electors.

[2] James Monroe was born in Virginia in 1758. He served in the army in the Revolutionary War, taking part in the capture of Trenton. He represented the United States in France, England, and Spain; was Secretary of War and then Secretary of State in Madison's administration. Monroe was

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284. Manufactures and the tariff.—The European wars, the embargo, and the War of 1812 had so interfered with foreign commerce and industry that it was no longer easy to obtain manufactured goods like woolen cloth and steel knives from England and France and other countries of Europe. Many capitalists[1] in the United States, especially in the North, built factories and began to manufacture cloth and other commodities on a large scale. When the war was over, every one expected that prosperity would come speedily; but the ending of the war made it possible for English and French manufacturers and merchants to send over such quantities of goods and sell them so cheaply that it was out of the question for American manufacturers to compete with them. The Americans turned to Congress and asked it to put such heavy duties on foreign-made goods that it would be possible to continue to make woolen cloth and other goods in the United States. Congress did this in 1816. The duties were raised again in 1824. The first protective tariff (§ 221) had been made in 1789; but the duties were low and there were not many of them, so that this act of 1816 is really the beginning of our present protective system.

285. Western migration.—The years following the close of the War of 1812 saw a great migration to the states and territories west of the Allegheny Mountains. Hundreds of thousands of acres of land had been bought or seized from the Indians and opened to settlement. So rapid was

one of Jefferson's favorites and the latter had declared that he had been "born for the public." In 1817, Monroe, following Washington's example, traveled through the Northern States. His kindliness and sound common sense everywhere won the regard of those who met him or listened to him. He died in New York, July 4, 1831. In 1858, one hundred years after his birth, his remains were carried to his native state and buried in Richmond, at the desire of the Virginians.

[1] Capital means money, property, or stock employed in business; also credit.

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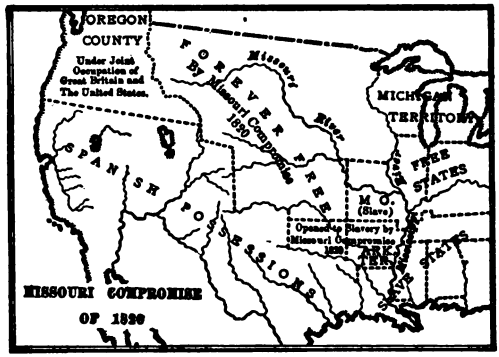
the growth of the western country that four states were admitted to the Union during the years 1816 to 1819 and a fifth was clamoring for admission. The four states were Indiana and Illinois, which had formed part of the old Northwest Territory, and Mississippi and Alabama. These with that part of the state of Louisiana which lies east of the Mississippi, and Tennessee and Kentucky, completed the settlement of the country between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi[1] as far north as Lake Michigan. Settlers were already crossing the great river into Missouri Territory, and in 1820, they asked to be admitted to the Union as a separate state.

286. The Missouri Compromise, 1820. — At the same time that the people of Missouri applied for admission to the Union, the people of Maine asked to be detached from Massachusetts and made into a separate state. Maine would come in as a free state, but the Missouri settlers wished their proposed state to be a slave state. Many Northerners opposed this because they thought that slavery should



[1] The fourteenth state, Vermont, was admitted in 1791; the fifteenth, Kentucky, in 1792; the sixteenth, Tennessee, in 1796; the seventeenth, Ohio, in 1802; the eighteenth, Louisiana, in 1812; the nineteenth, Indiana, in 1816; the twentieth, Mississippi, in 1817; the twenty-first, Illinois, in 1818; the twenty-second, Alabama, in 1819. All of these except Louisiana were made from the original territory of the United States. For some account of the states, see Appendix; for the original states, see § 123.

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be excluded from the whole of the Louisiana Purchase, excepting only that which was already settled in 1803. The Southerners were not at all ready to agree to this. There were then twenty-two states, eleven of them were slave states, and eleven free states. As each state has two Senators in the upper branch of Congress, the moment the free states outnumbered the slave states the Southerners might lose their control of the Senate. This was especially important because the free states were increasing very fast in population, owing to the growth of manufacturing towns and villages of which there were none in the South. As the number of Representatives each state sent to Congress depended on population, it was evident that the South would soon lose control of that House at any rate. Naturally, the Southerners were very sensitive about any plan that might limit slavery. The contest over the admission of Missouri was very bitter. Finally, a compromise was made and it was agreed to admit Maine as a free state and Missouri as a slave state and to declare that slavery should be "forever excluded" from all the rest of the western territory that lay to the north of the southern boundary of the state of Missouri.[1] This arrangement is known as the Missouri Compromise.

287. **Annexation of Florida, 1819.** — All this time, Spain still possessed the peninsula of Florida and lands on the Gulf of Mexico, south of the old southern boundary of the United States, according to the Treaty of 1783.[2] The

[1] Maine was admitted in 1820; Missouri in 1821; although the contest in Congress was in 1820. Jefferson, in his retirement at Monticello, was greatly dismayed at the "mutual and mortal" hatred that had been aroused. He feared it would lead to the splitting up of the Union and wrote that he regretted he should die in the belief that the men of 1776 had sacrificed themselves uselessly because of the unwise and unworthy passions of their sons.

[2] By the Treaty of 1783, the southern boundary of the United States was the thirty-first parallel from the Mississippi to the Chattahoochee, down that river to the junction with the Flint, thence in a straight line to the source of

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American government greatly desired to gain this territory because it was a resort for runaway Indians and negro slaves, and bold, daring men who smuggled goods across our borders. John Quincy Adams, son of President John Adams, was Monroe's Secretary of State. He found the Spaniards unwilling to give up any territory to the United States. After long and persistent negotiations, however, Spain sold Florida to us (1819) for $5,000,000, and agreed to regard the line which is drawn on the colored map opposite page 243 as the northern limit of her possessions in North America.[1]

288. The Monroe Doctrine, 1823. — Mexico and several South American colonies had declared themselves free from the yoke of Spain and had established republican forms of government. This aroused the monarchs of continental Europe, who sympathized with the Spanish king and were ready to assist him in forcing his former colonists to return to their obedience. The leader in this scheme was the Czar of Russia. At about the same time, Russian exploring expeditions visited the shores of California, which was not then a part of the United States. All these things annoyed Monroe and Adams very much. In 1823, President Monroe sent a message to Congress, in which he declared that both American continents were no longer open to colonization by any European power, and that any interference by any such power with any independent American state would be regarded "as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States."

the St. Mary's, and down that river to the Atlantic Ocean. This line still remains, in part, in the northern boundary of the state of Florida.

[1] The Florida Treaty arranged the southwestern boundary of the United States. The northwestern boundary had been arranged the preceding year in a treaty with Great Britain to follow the forty-ninth parallel from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains. This has remained the northern boundary of the United States.

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These words, which were written by John Quincy Adams, have become the basis of what is known as the Monroe Doctrine, that America is reserved for Americans.

289. Summary. — Monroe's administration was an "Era of Good Feeling" that came to an abrupt ending in the election of his successor. The manufacturers in the Northern States brought about the passage of the tariff of 1816, giving them increased protection. Rapid emigration to the West brought on a contest over the question of admitting Missouri to the Union as a slave state. In 1819, the Florida Treaty provided for the annexation of much-needed territory in the Southeast. In 1823, Monroe sent a message to Congress warning European powers to refrain from any further occupation of America.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION, 1825–1829; PARTY POLITICS

290. Election of 1824. — There were four candidates for the presidency in 1824 — John Quincy Adams[1] of Massa-

[1] John Quincy Adams, the sixth President, was the son of John Adams, the successor of Washington. He was born at Quincy, Massachusetts, July 11, 1767. He went abroad with his father when he was eleven years of age, and became private secretary to the American minister at St. Petersburg, when he was only thirteen. He came home, studied law, entered politics, joined the Republican party, and again went abroad, this time as minister, first to Berlin and then to Russia. He was one of the negotiators of the Treaty of Ghent, which marked the ending of the War of 1812. He then became Secretary of State, and next President. Not long after his retirement from the presidency, the selectmen of Quincy waited upon him and asked him if he would consider it undignified for an ex-President to go back to Washington as a member of the House of Representatives. He replied that no person could be degraded by serving in any office "if elected thereto by the people." For seventeen years he led the opponents of slavery, expressing their opinions and desires so impressively and forcibly that he was called the "Old Man Eloquent." At length, on February 21, 1848, while trying to get up from his chair to address the House, he suddenly fell insensible and two days later died in the Speaker's room, to which he had been removed.

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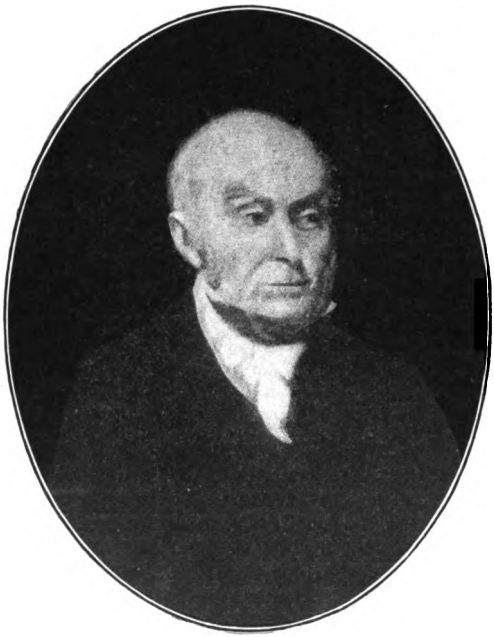
chusetts, William H. Crawford of Georgia, Henry Clay of Kentucky, and Andrew Jackson of Tennessee. As none of them had a majority of the electoral votes, the choice rested with the House of Representatives, voting by states. Henry Clay, who was again Speaker of the House, had the smallest number of votes and was the fourth on the list. As the Representatives had to vote for the three highest, they could not elect Clay. His friends, combining with those of Adams, chose the latter, although General Jackson had received more electoral votes than had Adams. This action of the House greatly angered the Jackson men, and they were not made any happier by Adams appointing Clay as his Secretary of State. On the contrary, they declared that Adams and Clay had made a corrupt bargain. They assailed them both with such vigor and so persistently that people really thought that something was wrong. The Jackson men became thoroughly organized as a party machine, and in 1828 elected their candidate President by a clear



John Quincy Adams.

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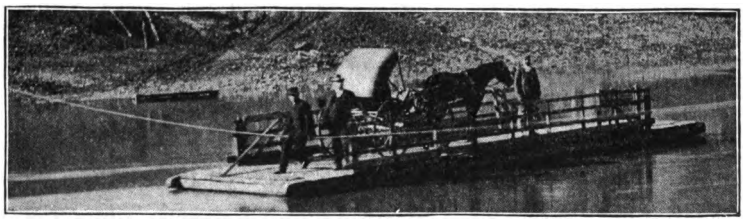
majority. Thus it happened that of all the early Presidents, the two Adamses alone served for one term apiece.

291. **Roads and coaches.** — The western country now began filling up more rapidly than ever before. A great national road had been constructed over the Alleghenies from Cumberland, Maryland, and was known as the Cumberland Road, and, later, as the National Road, because it was constructed at the national expense. Before work was stopped, it reached central Illinois. Another favorite line of travel was overland by wagons, through Pennsylvania



An Old Ferryboat.

to Pittsburg, and then by boat or raft down the Ohio. The settlers had gone for the most part to southern or central Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Another line of travel was becoming more popular. The emigrant went by road from the Hudson, through central New York to Lake Erie, and then by water to the settlements on the Great Lakes. This line followed the old Iroquois trail (§ 32). Along it went stage-coaches, which were large covered wagons hung on great leather straps in place of springs. The road was fearfully rough in spots, so that these stages jolted terribly. In places it was so muddy that the wheels would sink to the hubs, and progress would be impossible. Companies, or associations of individuals, now took the matter in hand and agreed to construct a good road, pro-

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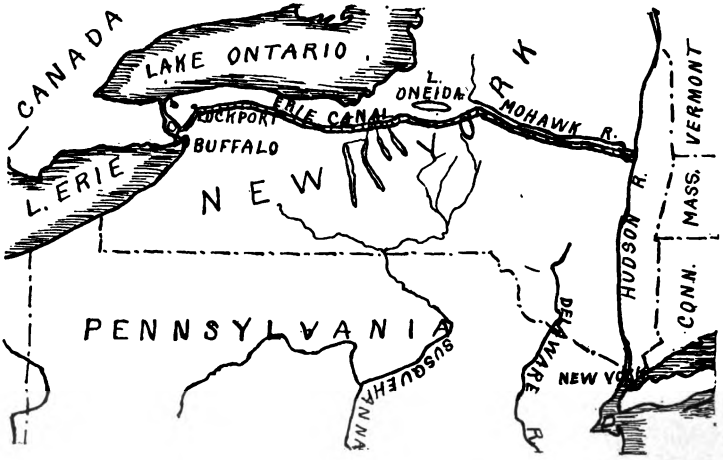
vided they were allowed to collect tolls[1] at given points to compensate them for the money they spent in building the road and keeping it in repair. At these places gates were kept shut until the traveller had paid the toll, which depended upon the number of horses, or other animals, attached to the cart or wagon. When the sum had been paid, the gate would be swung open and the team allowed to pass through on its way to the next toll-gate.

292. The Erie Canal. — As soon as the farms of the Great Lake region began to produce wheat and other



grains, it became of the greatest importance to find some easy method of getting these bulky commodities to the seaboard, whence they could be exported to Europe. It would be much cheaper to send them by canal-boat from Lake Erie to New York City than to haul them most of the way by wagons. The highest point on the line from

[1] Toll is a sum paid for a privilege, as passing over a highway, or through a canal.

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the Hudson to Lake Erie was less than five hundred feet above sea-level, so that it seemed possible to dig a canal along this route. De Witt Clinton was the man who pushed forward this enterprise until it was accomplished. The canal was three hundred and sixty-three miles in length, and had no less than eighty-three locks. At one place a great embankment was built, two miles long and seventy-two feet high above the level of the swamp. On the top of this they dug a place for the canal. It took over eight years to complete the whole undertaking. It was opened in 1825, Governor De Witt Clinton journeying from Lake Erie to New York City on a canal-boat. On his arrival at New York Harbor he poured into it a keg full of Lake Erie water, and thus, for the first time in the world's history, a boat could go from New York City to Lake Erie and back. New York City now grew with astonishing rapidity, and in a few years became the greatest city in the country.

293. **Success of the Erie Canal.** — The canal justified every hope of its promoters. In one year it reduced the cost of carrying a ton of wheat from Lake Erie to New York from one hundred dollars to ten. The canal also became the highway for travellers and emigrants. The boats were fitted up with sleeping cabins, while by day the passengers could sit on the roof, being careful to crouch down whenever they came to a low bridge. Freight boats were drawn by one horse, and went very slowly. Passenger boats were drawn by three horses, which trotted briskly for ten miles, when three other horses and another driver relieved the first set, and so on from one end of the canal to the other. It took twenty-four hours to go in this way eighty miles, — not much more than one of the fast limited trains now goes in an hour, or an hour and a half. These boats carried mails as well as passengers, and

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were met at all important points by stage-coaches and carriages from the near-by towns. Canals were now constructed all over the country, but in a few years the opening of steam railways greatly lessened the importance of most of them.

294. **Early railroads.** — The prosperity of New York alarmed the Pennsylvanians and Marylanders. They determined to improve the modes of transportation through their states, and so win back the commerce that they had lost, or, at all events, not lose any more, because it was cheaper to send goods from Philadelphia to Pittsburg by way of New York and the Erie Canal than it was to send them overland by the old road through Pennsylvania itself. To regain some of their former importance in transportation, they opened a new line of travel, partly by canal and partly by railroad. This road consisted of several short sections of railroad constructed at the carrying places between two sets of canals, and was therefore called the Portage Railroad. At one place, lines of wooden rails were laid up the side of the mountain, and loaded cars were pulled up by means of a rope and a stationary engine. The people of Baltimore were even more ambitious. They began the building of a railroad to connect their city with the western country. On July 4, 1828, while John Quincy Adams was still President, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton in Maryland, the sole survivor of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, assisted in placing the first foundation-stone of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.[1]

A Horse Locomotive.

[1] At first the rails on this road were set on granite blocks instead of being spiked to wooden cross ties or sleepers.

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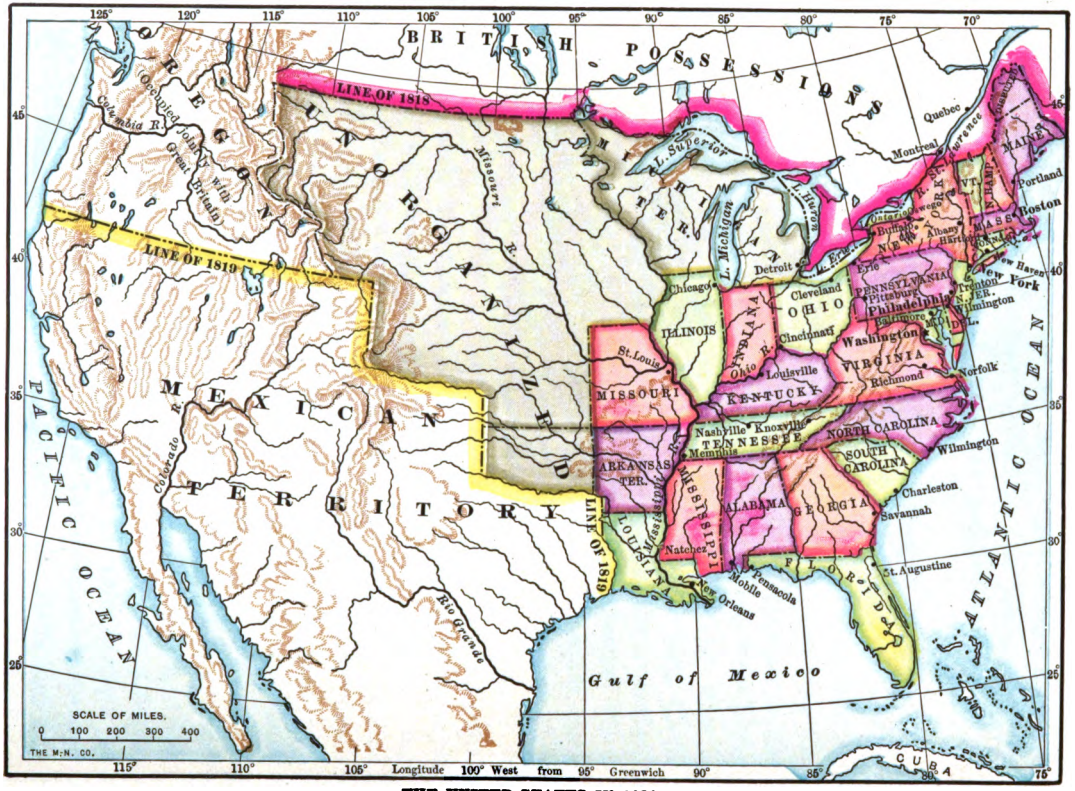

THE UNITED STATES IN 1830.

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295. The steam locomotive. — In the beginning, horses were used to draw wagons along the lines of railroads, and were still used five years later. The first successful steam locomotive was built in England, but the English engines that were brought over and used on American railroads were not successful, because their rigid frames were not suited to our crooked tracks. Peter Cooper of New York hit upon the idea of putting the forward wheels of the engine on a truck that could adjust itself to the curves of the line. He built a model engine which he named the Tom Thumb. In 1832 he experimented with it on the

Peter Cooper's Locomotive, "Tom Thumb," racing with a Horse Car.

Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. He drew one car thirteen miles in fifty-seven minutes, going up and down hill and around curves with the greatest ease. He was much pleased with the success of his engine in going around curves; but was disappointed, nevertheless, because he was beaten by a gray horse on the way home, owing to the defective draft of the furnace of his engine. This defeat spurred Cooper on until he perfected his invention. In a few years steam locomotives could outstrip horses and canal-boats with certainty and ease. Railroads were now constructed in all parts of the country. They reduced the cost of transportation, and made it possible to open up new regions to settlement. The ease and certainty with which they could be operated, even in storms, helped greatly the building of cities and large towns, because the

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dwellers in them could be supplied with food and fuel from a distance.

296. Summary. — John Quincy Adams was chosen President by the House of Representatives in 1824, and was inaugurated in March of the next year. Western emigration greatly increased in Adams's time, and led to new modes of transportation. Existing roads were improved, the Erie and other canals were dug, and the first railroads were built. These, in turn, led to the more rapid opening up of the West.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1829–1837; PRESERVATION OF THE UNION

297. A western President. — Up to this time all the Presidents had come from two states — Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe from Virginia, and the two Adamses from Massachusetts. Jackson[1] was a native of Carolina, but had moved to Tennessee when a young man and had grown up with the country. He had studied law, served as a judge in his state supreme court, and as a

[1] Andrew Jackson, the seventh President, was born in the Carolina backwoods, in 1767, and died in Tennessee in 1845. His father and mother came from the north of Ireland, and were of Scottish descent. In 1780, when he was only thirteen years of age, the British came to the Carolinas. Two of his brothers were killed in the Revolution, his mother died while nursing prisoners, and the boy was left alone in the world. As the commander of the Tennessee militia, he led the military forces against the Creek Indians in 1814, to avenge a most atrocious massacre of white settlers. The service was hard, and the soldiers were often on the edge of starvation. Nothing could induce Jackson to turn back. On one occasion he faced his whole army and made the soldiers do their duty. At length, he stormed the Indian fort and practically destroyed the Creek nation. Next came his great victory at New Orleans (see § 273). After that he preserved order on the southern frontier until the annexation of Florida, when he was appointed military governor of the new acquisition. In his presidency he travelled to New England, winning by his gentle ways the affection of many persons who had hitherto opposed him. The popular name of "Old Hickory" best expresses the strength and firmness of his character.

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Andrew Jackson.

Senator in Congress, but it was as a soldier that he had won fame and a place in the hearts of his countrymen. They looked upon him as a Democrat, and voted for him because he was "the candidate of the people." The

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"General" was known to be faithful to his friends, so that those who shouted loudly in his praises felt pretty certain that they would be looked after.

298. **Rotation in office.** — When Jefferson became President, he removed a few Federalist office-holders and appointed Republicans in their places, believing that each party should have a share in government; but Jackson in one month removed more officials than all the other Presidents had done in forty years, and gave their places to his followers. This new system was called "rotation in office" and later the "Spoils System."[1] It was the beginning of the practice of using public offices as rewards for political services.

299. **Party names.** — Jefferson's old party had been named Republican, to show that its members were sturdy opponents of monarchy. When this Republican party split into several factions toward the close of Monroe's administration, the different sections took the names of their chiefs and called themselves Jackson men, Adams men, and so on. In John Quincy Adams's time, the Adams men and the Clay men called themselves National Republicans, and the Jackson men took the name of Democratic Republicans. The latter soon dropped the Republican and became Democrats, pure and simple. The National Republicans dropped the whole of their name and took that of Whig. This they did to show that they favored reforms, because the name Whig before the Revolution had been that of the reformers. Thus there were, in 1830, two prominent political parties, the Democratic and the Whig.

300. **Tariff act of 1828.** — The manufacturers had got some protection from Congress in the tariff acts, especially in that of 1824 (§ 284). They were still unsatisfied, and

[1] A United States Senator had remarked "to the victors belong the spoils."

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wanted more. In 1828, Congress took up the matter again. The farmers of the Northwest were in favor of a high tariff, because it would increase the number of factories in the East and employ more operatives there who would need the grain of the western farms for food, and thus give those farmers a good market for their products. The Jackson men and the Adams men were equally anxious for the vote of the manufacturing states of the northern seaboard and the farming states of the Northwest. They strove to outdo one another by voting for high duties all around. This resulted in the tariff act of 1828, which was the worst of its kind in our history.

301. **Nullification.** — The cotton growers of the South, especially those of South Carolina, had no wish whatever for higher duties on manufactured goods. They sold most of their cotton to English spinners, and wanted to buy the cloth, which they used for clothing for their slaves, and many other necessary things in England where the prices were much less than they were in America. Hitherto, they had expected that there would be an early ending to the protective system. When the South Carolinians saw that it was permanent and more restrictive than ever, they held a convention and voted that no one in their state should pay the duties that were provided in this tariff act. This was called nullification because, if carried out, it would make the act of Congress null or useless. John C. Calhoun,[1] who had earlier been a Nationalist, led in this attempt to assert the powers of the states.

[1] John C. Calhoun was born in South Carolina, in 1782. Like Andrew Jackson, he was the son of parents who had emigrated from the north of Ireland. He was educated in the North, graduating from Yale College in 1804. At an early age, he became prominent in national politics. He was Secretary of War in Monroe's administration, and advised the censuring of Jackson for some of his doings in Florida. He was elected Vice-president with Jackson, who had supposed that Calhoun had defended him. When he discovered

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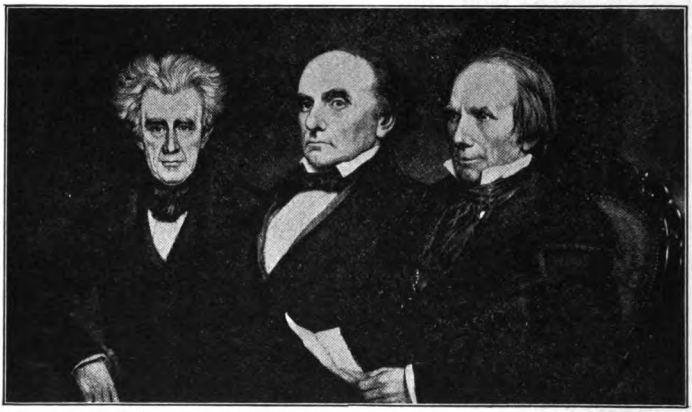
302. Jackson, Clay, and the Nullifiers. — Declaring that the "federal Union must be preserved," Jackson directed the collector at Charleston, South Carolina, to collect the taxes levied under this tariff, and ordered General Scott to protect the collector in the discharge of his duty. To South Carolinians who came to him, Jackson said that



Calhoun, Webster, and Clay.

armed resistance to United States laws was treason, and that he would hang the first traitor he caught on the first tree he could reach. Clay, who was now the leader of the Whigs, met the issue in an entirely different manner. He pushed through Congress a bill to reduce the duties gradually, so that after a few years' time, the cotton growers would have nothing to complain of.[1] Because of these

the contrary, and realized that Calhoun was at the head of the South Carolina nullification movement, it is said that he even went so far as to threaten to hang him. At all events, Calhoun's prospects of succeeding Jackson in the presidency were ruined. He resigned the vice-presidency to become Senator from South Carolina and held that office until his death in 1850, with the exception of three years, when he was Secretary of State in Tyler's administration. Throughout this time, he led the forces of the slave power in Congress.

[1] Henry Clay was born in or near Richmond, Virginia, on April 12, 1777. As

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doings of Jackson and Clay, the nullifiers saw that the best thing that they could do was to hold another convention, and repeal the vote of the first one, and they did so.

303. **Webster's great speech.** — Another prominent Whig leader was Daniel Webster, Senator from Massachusetts.

Webster's Birthplace.

a boy he was very poor, and only with great labor and industry did he succeed in educating himself sufficiently to begin the study of law. He moved over the mountains to Kentucky in 1797, and soon became prominent in the politics of that state. In 1806, he was chosen one of the two United States Senators from Kentucky. From that time until his death, he was almost continually either a Senator or member of the House of Representatives, except when he occupied high office under the government. He was one of the negotiators of the Treaty of Ghent, and was Secretary of State in J. Q. Adams's administration. Clay was in favor of providing, at national expense, for the easier transportation of goods between the East and the West. He was ever in favor of smoothing over the troubles between the North and the South, and was so successful that he was called "the Great Pacificator." So ardent was he in his wish for peace that he was willing to risk his popularity in doing what he thought was for the interests of the American people, — "I would rather be right than be President" was his motto. He died in 1850, just after the adoption of the great compromise of that year, which was mainly due to him.

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In the debates in Congress,[1] he made one of the greatest speeches ever delivered there. He declared that the Constitution was "the people's constitution, the people's government; made by the people and answerable to the people. The people have declared that this constitution . . . shall be the supreme law." No state could declare a national law null and void: that could only be done by the Supreme Court of the United States. Concluding, he uttered the memorable words "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

304. The Abolitionists. — The excitement over nullification had scarcely died down when a new cause of irritation between the North and the South arose over slavery. In 1833, the British government freed all the slaves in the British West Indies, paying their masters for them. The United States was now almost the only civilized country in which negro slavery existed. Some Northerners thought that it would be a good plan for the government to use the money which it derived from the sale of public lands to buy the southern slaves and set them free. But these were few in number, and had not much influence. Others agreed with William Lloyd Garrison[2] that negro slavery ought to be abolished at once and without paying anything to the masters, because it was a sin and a shame to hold human beings in bondage. These were called the Aboli-

[1] Daniel Webster was a New Hampshire boy, and a graduate of Dartmouth College, but for the greater part of his active career was identified with Massachusetts. He was a lawyer by profession, but entered politics at an early age, and was in Congress as a Representative or Senator from New Hampshire and Massachusetts for more than thirty years. He also acted as Secretary of State and conducted sundry important negotiations with Great Britain. On account of his strikingly fine appearance and bearing, he was called the "God-like" Webster. He was born in 1782, and died in 1852. Calhoun, Clay, and Webster were the three greatest orators of their day, and were known as the "great triumvirate." Each of them was several times candidate for the presidency, but none of them reached that high office.

[2] Garrison published a paper called *The Liberator*.

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tionists. Garrison and the extremists among the Abolitionists felt so strongly on the matter that they would gladly have severed the Union, so that they would no longer live in a country that tolerated slavery. Webster, Lincoln, and others were opposed to slavery, but considered the preservation of the Union to be of greater importance.

305. **Growth of the West.** — In 1836, Arkansas was admitted to the Union as a slave state, and the next year, 1837, Michigan came in as a free state. The attention of the people had been called to the richness of the country between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi by the Black Hawk War of 1832. Four hundred regulars and four regiments of volunteers took part in this campaign. Among the officers were Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis, who was just graduated from West Point.[1] There had been a military post on the site of Chicago since the beginning of the century. In 1833, there were twenty-eight voters in that town who met and elected trustees to administer public affairs. Four years later it had a population of four thousand, and, with hardly a set-back, has kept on growing ever since. Chicago has developed more rapidly than any other large city in the country; but there are many other splendid cities on the shores of the Great Lakes, as Buffalo, Cleveland, Toledo, Detroit, Milwaukee, and Duluth.

306. **Summary.** — Andrew Jackson, a westerner, became President. He removed hundreds of office-holders, and appointed his party friends to their places. The cotton growers objected to the tariff, and South Carolina

[1] Besides Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis, there were in this little army other men who became famous, — Robert Anderson, the defender of Fort Sumter, in 1861; Albert Sidney Johnston, the Confederate general, who was killed at Shiloh; and Winfield Scott and Zachary Taylor, who led the American armies in the Mexican War. Of these, Lincoln and Taylor became Presidents of the United States, and Davis, President of the Confederacy.

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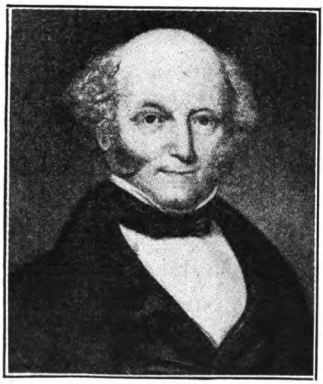
attempted to nullify it, but was induced to obey the law. Daniel Webster made a great speech in defence of the Constitution. Another cause of sectional difficulty now appeared in the demand of the Abolitionists for the immediate ending of negro slavery. The West developed with great rapidity in Jackson's time.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION, 1837–1841; HARD TIMES

307. President Van Buren. — Martin Van Buren[1] of New York was Jackson's choice for his successor. Van Buren had been Jackson's Secretary of State and had been elected Vice-president in 1832. He had been fortunate in winning Jackson's confidence, and had practically agreed to continue Jackson's policies if he became President. It was under these circumstances that he was elected in 1836, and took the oath of office in March, 1837.



Martin Van Buren.

308. The Panic of 1837. — Although Jackson had been

[1] Martin Van Buren, eighth President of the United States, was born in New York in 1782, and was the first person to be chosen President from that state. For many years he practised law and acquired considerable wealth by fortunate investments in lands. He was also active in politics, and aided greatly in securing Jackson's election by throwing the vote of New York in his favor. In return, he was appointed Secretary of State by Jackson. Later, he went to England as United States minister and was not mixed up in the political wrangles of Jackson's second term. After the close of his presidency, Van Buren retired to private life and later became the presidential candidate of those who were opposed to the extension of negro slavery. He died in New York in 1862.

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so successful in combating nullification, the last few months of his term of office were marked by great suffering throughout the country. For years, every one had felt prosperous and had bought whatever seemed to him to be desirable without much thought as to whether he could pay for it or not. Money had been easy to borrow, because in such good times there seemed to be no doubt as to repayment. The excitement of speculation spread to the West. There it took the form of buying government lands and holding them until they could be sold at a profit. After this had been going on for a little while, it attracted Jackson's attention, and the danger of it all suddenly came to him. He thought that he could check this fever of speculation by requiring that whoever bought government lands in the future should pay for them in gold or silver. This demand came at the moment when things were on the point of a crash. Down went prices with a rush, faster, much faster than they had gone up. In the four or five weeks that Jackson was going out and Van Buren coming in, no less than twenty thousand persons lost their jobs in New York City alone. Jackson's lack of financial training did much to bring about this condition of affairs; but Van Buren paid the penalty politically. After a time, business recovered; people found employments again. But those that had been out of work did not regain the wages that they had lost, and those who had been obliged to sell their property for much less than it was worth, did not get any of it back. The people associated their hardships with Van Buren, and enough of them turned away from him in 1840 to secure his defeat.[1]

[1] Another cause of the panic was Jackson's attack on the United States Bank. This was a great national bank with its chief office in Philadelphia and branch offices in leading cities. Jackson thought that it was used for political purposes and brought about its downfall by withdrawing the government's funds. In 1840 the Independent Treasury system was adopted.

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309. The election of 1840. — The presidential election of this year was fought with a vim and enthusiasm that had never been seen before. Torchlight processions were formed of marching political clubs singing at the top of their lungs, "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too." Van Buren was the candidate of the Democrats, while the Whigs nominated William Henry Harrison and John Tyler. They had nominated Harrison simply because of his reputation as an Indian fighter, and as the conqueror of the British in the battle of the Thames (§ 269). He was very simple in his habits and poor in purse in contrast with Van Buren, who used gold and silver spoons and forks at table, and sat in a stuffed chair instead of one of Indiana hickory. They had nominated Tyler as Vice-president on account of his opposition to Jacksonian policies, although he was a southern man. The Whigs put forward no principles. Their only desire was to turn the Democrats out and get themselves in, — and they won.

310. Summary. — Martin Van Buren followed Jackson as President, and continued his policies. A great business panic swept over the country, from which recovery was very slow. In 1840, the Whigs elected Harrison and Tyler, President and Vice-president.

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HARRISON AND TYLER, 1841–1845; ANNEXATION OF TEXAS

311. **Harrison's inauguration and death, 1841.** — When Harrison[1] was inaugurated, the Whigs rushed to Washington and besieged the old general for offices; they even slept in out-of-the-way corners of the White House in the hope of being the first to greet him in the morning. The pressure was too great for the old soldier. He sickened and died after he had been President just one month. For the first time in our history, a Vice-president became President, owing to the death of his chief.

312. **Tyler's administration.** — Now that John Tyler[2] was President, it very soon became apparent that he was entirely out of sympathy with Whig policies. Congress passed one law after another for regulating the finances and the financial system, and Tyler vetoed nearly all of them. He was a President without a party; and the party which had elected him found that it was without a President to carry out its ideas.

313. **The northeastern boundary settled, 1842.** — Ever since 1783, the United States and Great Britain had been disputing over the northeastern boundary of the United States. The British wanted to push the line down across

[1] William Henry Harrison, the ninth President, was born in Virginia in 1773. He was the son of Benjamin Harrison, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. At an early age he entered the army and was with Wayne at the battle of the Fallen Timbers. He then became secretary of the Northwest Territory and first governor of Indiana Territory. His simplicity and courage endeared him to his fellow-men, and his death was mourned by Whigs and Democrats.

[2] John Tyler, tenth President, was born in Virginia in 1790. After graduating at William and Mary College, he practised law. He was governor of Virginia and United States Senator. In 1861, he presided over the Peace Convention, which was called to bring about harmony between the North and the South. That proving impossible, he advocated the secession of Virginia, and was a member of the Confederate Congress, thus casting in his lot with the South. He died in 1862.

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the central part of the state of Maine. The Americans contended that it should run very near to the St. Lawrence River. After many failures, this matter was settled in 1842 by Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton, representing the United States and Great Britain, respectively. This treaty is known as the Webster-Ashburton Treaty. The line agreed upon is the northern boundary of Maine, as it is to-day.

314. **The electric telegraph, 1844.**—Railroads had now increased greatly in number and in length and in the amount of business done over them. It was difficult, however, to manage many trains on a long railroad with safety, unless some one man could communicate quickly with the different stations on the road. The carrying on of business, also, was hampered by the lack of speedy communication. Samuel F. B. Morse put an end to these difficulties by inventing the electric telegraph. He found that by depressing a key at one end of a wire charged with electricity he could likewise depress a corresponding key at the other end of the line, and it would stay down exactly as long as he held his down. Having found this out, he prepared a system of clockwork by which a thin strip of paper could be drawn under these keys. The final step was to invent a new alphabet by means of which dashes and dots drawn on a piece of paper could be made to answer for the *a*, *b*, *c* which every one learns in childhood. People laughed at Morse as they had laughed at Fulton. Finally, he induced Congress to vote enough money to put up a line of wire from Washington to Baltimore. Then when all was ready he sent the first message over a long line of electric telegraph. It read, "What hath God wrought!"[1] This great invention was soon

[1] On the last day of the session of Congress in March, 1843, Morse had waited in vain for the passage of the bill to grant him money enough for the

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applied to all the varied uses of modern civilized life. In our own time it has been greatly supplemented by an even more wonderful invention, that of the telephone, and now both are partly supplanted by the discovery that it is possible to send electric waves through the air without using wire at all.

315. **The Texas question.** — The activity of the Abolitionists and other anti-slavery people in the North had brought the Southerners to search for more territory that was fitted for negro slavery and which could be added to the Union and formed into states. It was only in this way that they could hope to hold their own against the ever-growing power of the North. Texas seemed to be the best bit of land for their purposes. Originally Texas had been a part of Mexico and had belonged to Spain. The Mexicans had freed themselves from Spanish control (§ 288), and some years later, the Texans had rebelled against Mexico and set up a government for themselves (1836). Many settlers had gone there from the United States. They were anxious to become American citizens again and the Southerners were anxious to have them, because Texas would make one or more cotton-growing slave states. For this very reason, many people in the North were opposed to adding it to the Union. They had managed to put off any decision of the question; but now Tyler brought it forward again.

316. **Texas annexed, 1845.** — Tyler made a treaty with Texas providing for its admission to the Union, but this

erection of a trial line of telegraph. At length, he gave up in despair and went home and to bed. The next morning, the daughter of an old friend came to see him and congratulated him. "Indeed, for what?" asked the discouraged inventor. She replied that the bill had passed the Senate after he had gone, and that her father had seen the President sign it. When Morse recovered from his surprise, he told her that she should be the first to send a message over the completed line, — and so she did, choosing the words which are given in the text.

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was defeated in the Senate. In 1844, there came another presidential election. Van Buren declared that if he were again elected President he would not favor the addition of Texas. The Democrats passed him by and nominated James K. Polk (Pōk) of Tennessee. The Whigs nominated Henry Clay and the anti-slavery men for the first time had a separate candidate of their own. Polk was elected by a small majority and this Tyler declared meant that the voters favored the addition of Texas; and it was annexed by resolution of the two Houses of Congress, which was approved by the President, March 1, 1845.[1]

317. **Summary.** — The Whigs elected Harrison and Tyler, President and Vice-president. The former died one month after his inauguration and the latter became President. Tyler fell out with the Whig party so that it was unable to carry out its policy. In 1842, the Webster-Ashburton Treaty settled the northeastern boundary partly in favor of the United States. Morse invented the electric telegraph. The Southerners brought about the annexation of Texas. In 1844, James K. Polk of Tennessee, a Democrat, was elected President.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION,[2] 1845–1849; THE MEXICAN WAR

318. **Beginning of the Mexican War, 1846.** — The Mexicans were greatly annoyed when the people of Texas

[1] The resolution of March 1 provided for the annexation of Texas. The state was formally admitted to the Union on December 29, 1845. On March 3, 1845, that part of the Florida Purchase which is now included within the limits of the state of the same name was admitted to the Union. These were both slave states and their admission gave the slave states a majority in the Senate.

[2] James K. Polk, the eleventh President, was born in North Carolina in 1795. He removed to Tennessee, represented that state in Congress for fourteen years, and was Speaker of the House of Representatives for two terms He died in 1849, shortly after the close of his presidency.

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declared themselves independent of the Mexican republic, 1836. The annexation of Texas to the United States, nine years later, excited them even more. At once disputes began as to the southern boundary of Texas, which had now become the southern boundary of the United States. The Mexicans said that Texas extended only to the Nueces (Nwā′sĕs) River. The Texans declared that it extended to the Rio Grande (Rē′ō Grän′dā),[1] and the United States government proceeded to defend the territory of its new state. This President Polk did by ordering General Zachary Taylor with about four thousand soldiers to march to the Rio Grande, but not to attack the Mexicans; if he was attacked, he must defend himself. The Mexicans attacked an outpost of this force and President Polk thereupon informed Congress that war with Mexico existed by the act of Mexico itself.

319. California and New Mexico seized. — California was still a part of the Mexican republic, and many Californians, including some American settlers, had for some time been greatly dissatisfied with the way that the Mexicans treated them. When they heard of the beginning of hostilities, they rebelled and established a republic of their own and asked for help. Commodore

[1] The Rio Grande was often called at that time the Rio del Norte, or the Rio Bravo, or sometimes the Rio Bravo del Norte.

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place and again at Pueblo. The Americans were now in the heart of Mexico, far away from their base of supplies and opposed by an army of many times their own numbers, but they pressed on and captured the defences of the city.[1]

322. **Peace with Mexico, 1848.** — The Mexicans were now willing to make peace on almost any terms. As finally arranged, the United States agreed to pay the Mexicans a sum of money, and to withdraw her armies from that country. In return, Mexico abandoned her claims to Texas, California, New Mexico, and other lands which are now included in the states of Arizona, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, and Wyoming. When the boundary line came to be surveyed, the American and Mexican commissioners could not agree. In the end, in 1853, the United States paid Mexico ten million dollars more and got in return a strip in the extreme southern parts of Arizona and New Mexico,[2] thus making the southern boundary of the United States as it is to-day.

323. **The Mormons and Salt Lake City.** — About the year 1827, Joseph Smith of Palmyra, New York, professed to have found an addition to the Bible engraved on golden plates. The "Angel of the Vision" told him how to translate these by the aid of two transparent stones. In

[1] At one time in this siege or blockade of the City of Mexico it became necessary to capture a fort or battery. The country round about was very marshy and was intersected by ditches in every direction, all of which greatly hindered the attackers. A second lieutenant of infantry noticed not far away a church belfry. He thought that if he could get a small cannon to the top of this tower, he could fire right into the Mexican fort. Taking the gun to pieces, it was carried to the top of the tower. General Worth, the American commander in that part of the field, was so impressed by the success of this attack that he sent Lieutenant Pemberton to bring to him the officer who had planned and carried out the brilliant operation. He turned out to be Second Lieutenant Ulysses S. Grant, who had won success at other times in the campaign, having attracted the attention of Major Robert E. Lee and other officers.

[2] This is called the Gadsden Purchase from the name of the American negotiator who made the treaty.

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this way grew the "Book of Mormon," which is still the guide of this religious sect. At first converts were few in number, but after a while, they became more plentiful. The Mormons established successive colonies or settlements in Ohio, Missouri, and Illinois, but in every case the people of the neighborhood where they settled set upon them and drove them out. They made one more pilgrimage to Salt Lake. This was in 1847, when that region belonged to Mexico. A year later, it was annexed to the United States, so that the Mormons again became American citizens. Their leader at this time was Brigham Young. Under his guidance, they transformed the barren soil of the lake shore into green fields. In Utah also the Mormons practised polygamy, or plural marriage. The Salt Lake is on the line of travel from the Mississippi Valley to California. Soon the Mormons found themselves no longer alone, but in the path of a great migration; and Salt Lake City has grown into a great and flourishing community.

324. **The Oregon question.** — North of California extending to the southern end of Alaska was Oregon. Both the United States and Great Britain claimed to have rights in that country but acknowledged that Alaska belonged to Russia. As they found it difficult to divide Oregon between them, in 1818 they provided for a joint occupation of the country, trusting that time would point a way to some fair division. British fur traders came over the Rocky Mountains from Canada and established posts even as far south as what is now the state of Oregon. American settlers and missionaries went from the United States and began establishing homes in the valley of the Columbia River. In 1844, partly as a means of reconciling the people of the North to the acquisition of Texas, the cry was raised "Give us Oregon!" "All Oregon or none!" To this was added sometimes "Fifty-four forty or fight!"

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS

Reconstruction and Reunion

- JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1865–1869; RECONSTRUCTION
  - *Three Amendments to the Constitution.*
  - *Impeachment of the President.*
  - *Purchase of Alaska.*
- GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION, 1869–1877; PROGRESS AND PANIC
  - *Progress of Reconstruction.*
  - *The Transcontinental Railroad.*
  - *Panic of 1873.*
  - *Centennial Exhibition, 1876.*
  - *Alabama Arbitration.*
- HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION, 1877–1881
  - *Electoral Commission.*
  - *Soldiers withdrawn from the South.*
  - *Strikes and Riots, 1877.*
- GARFIELD'S AND ARTHUR'S ADMINISTRATIONS, 1881–1885
  - *President Garfield slain, July, 1881.*
  - *Civil Service Reform.*
  - *The New Navy.*
- CLEVELAND'S AND HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATIONS, 1885–1897
  - *Political Confusion.*
  - *The Mugwumps.*
  - *The Secret Ballot.*
  - *Changing the Tariff.*
  - *Election of 1896.*

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XIII

THE SPANISH WAR

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION (1897–1901)

410. Cuban Rebellion. — The principal event in President McKinley's[1] administration was the war with Spain. During all these years Spain had kept the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico in the West Indies and the Philippines in the Far East, when all her other colonies had become independent. The Cubans and the Filipinos had rebelled, especially the former, but Spain had so far been able to put down these insurrections. From 1868, for ten years, Cuba was in a state of rebellion. This caused so much suffering in the island that, in 1877, President Grant interfered and advised the Spaniards to make peace with their warring colonists, which they did. Another rebellion began in 1895. This time the Spaniards seemed to be entirely unable to put down the insurrection. Year after year went on. Stories

William McKinley.

[1] William McKinley was born in Ohio in 1843. He served through the Civil War, rising to the rank of major. He then studied law and soon entered politics. He served several terms in Congress, and as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means prepared the McKinley Tariff.

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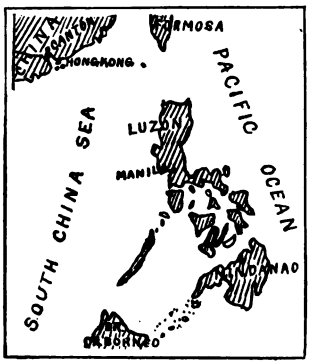
of Spanish cruelty and Cuban suffering and hardship were constantly coming to the United States. The American people became greatly stirred by this desire of their neighbors to be free from European misrule.

411. **"Remember the *Maine*."** — Early in January, 1898, the American battleship *Maine* anchored in Havana Harbor to protect the interests of Americans there and to offer a place of refuge to Americans in case of need. On February 15, she was destroyed by an explosion, more than two hundred and fifty of her crew being killed. United States naval officers looked into the matter and decided that she had been blown up by a Spanish mine. President McKinley sent the report of the naval board to the Spanish government, but, instead of apologizing, it only suggested that the whole matter should be submitted to a court of arbitration. This was the last straw. Congress passed four resolutions, asserting that the Cubans ought to be free; that the United States ought to demand the withdrawal of the Spaniards from that island; that the President ought to compel that withdrawal; and that the United States had no intention of annexing Cuba, but would leave the government and control of the island to its people. Upon learning of this action, Spain refused any longer to negotiate with the American minister at Madrid, and war followed.



412. **Commodore Dewey at Manila.** — Although the war began about Cuba, the first important combat took place thousands of miles away, in the Pacific Ocean. The American squadron, under the command of Commodore Dewey, was lying at anchor in the British harbor of

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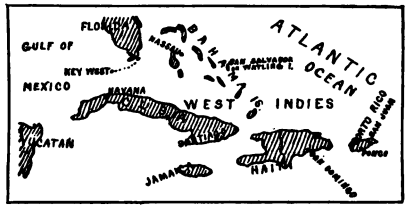
Hongkong off the southeastern coast of China, and about three days' sail from the Philippines. Commodore Dewey was ordered to destroy the Spanish warships which were then in that part of the world. In the early morning of May 1, 1898, he found the Spanish fleet lying at anchor at Manila. Slowly steaming backward and forward in front of the Spanish vessels, he sent one after another to the bottom, until the whole fleet was either destroyed or captured. So deliberately did he go about his work that, in the midst of the battle, he took his ships out of range that the guns might have time to cool, and the men to eat their breakfasts. Only six American sailors were injured by the return fire of the Spaniards. Not an American was killed, and none of Dewey's ships was seriously injured. This victory freed the Pacific coast of the United States from all fear of Spanish attack.[1] Commodore Dewey kept possession of the harbor until soldiers could be sent to him from the United States, when the city of Manila was captured.

413. **The fleets on the Atlantic.** — As soon as war was begun, the people of the Atlantic seaboard towns became greatly alarmed. They feared the Spaniards would send over warships to bombard them. To prevent this, the American government laid mines in the harbors, bought merchant steamers and put a few guns on board, and established a patrol along the coast. The naval vessels



[1] The Philippines had been discovered by Magellan (§ 11), and were conquered and colonized by the Spaniards in the sixteenth century, and had remained a Spanish possession until now, with the exception of a short period in 1762, when Manila was occupied by the English. During these centuries, they had been converted to Christianity, and had progressed in the arts of civilization.

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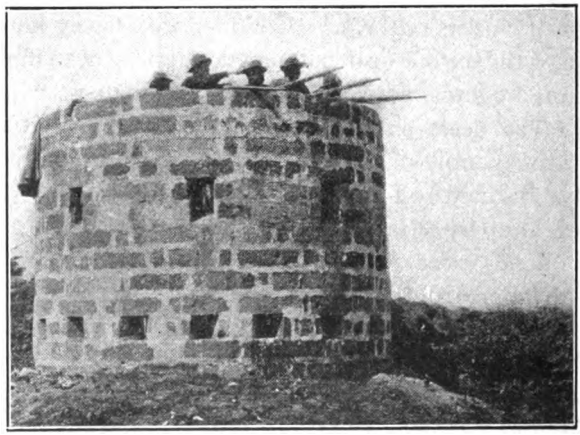
were divided into two fleets, one placed in command of Admiral Sampson, the other of Admiral Schley. There were only four battleships on the Atlantic coast, and two armored cruisers. The battleship *Oregon*, which had been built at San Francisco, was ordered to sail at top speed around South America to reënforce the ships under Sampson and Schley. Stopping only to take coal when necessary, she made the best of her way down the western coast of the United States, Central and South America, through Magellan Strait up the eastern coast of South America, and reached the scene of action in splendid trim, and in time to take her place in the fighting line.

414. Santiago. — The Spaniards possessed four swift-sailing modern armored cruisers. Under Admiral Cervera



A Spanish Blockhouse.

(Thĕr-vā′rä), they were sent across the Atlantic. Their movements were hard to trace, and for a long time it was very uncertain where they would reappear, and whether they would meet the *Oregon* on her way. At length they were reported off the Island of Martinique (Mär′tĭ-nēk′),

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and then they again disappeared, and it was not until some time had passed before they were actually known to be in Santiago (Sän-tē-ä′gō) Harbor on the southeastern end of Cuba. That harbor is very long, and its entrance so narrow and crooked, that it was impossible to take the American battleships past the forts guarding the entrance to attack the Spanish vessels within, as Dewey had done at Manila. It was necessary to send an army to attack Santiago by land, while the navy blockaded the entrance to the port. In this way the Spanish vessels would be either captured by the army or driven out to be destroyed by the navy. To make the blockade surer, Admiral Sampson sent in a vessel to be sunk across the entrance to the harbor, but this was not done at exactly the right place, so that when the time came, the Spanish vessels were able to get out.

415. **Roosevelt and San Juan Hill.** — Theodore Roosevelt was Assistant Secretary of the Navy when the war began. He at once resigned to become lieutenant-colonel of a regiment of "Rough Riders."[1] This formed part of the force which was sent under General Shafter to attack Santiago, and either capture the Spanish vessels or compel them to go outside where the navy could get at them. The landing was easily made on the Cuban coast, and the soldiers attacked the forts and blockhouses defending the city. The Rough Riders served on foot, as their horses could not be taken from the United States. The soldiers of the regular army, with the Rough Riders and other volunteers, rushed up San Juan (Hōō-än′) Hill and captured the blockhouses. The army then besieged the city, but before it surrendered the Spanish fleet left the harbor and made a dash for the open sea.

[1] This regiment included adventurous spirits of all kinds; cowboys from the ranches of the West and rich polo players of the East.

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416. The destruction of Cervera's vessels. — When the Spanish fleet came out of the harbor, the American blockading squadron turned on them. The Spaniards steamed westward along the coast. Before they had gone far, first one of their vessels, then another, was set on fire by shells from the American ships and was run ashore to save her and her crew from going to the bottom. Only one of them, the *Cristo'bal Colon* (Christopher Columbus), remained afloat for any length of time. She was pursued by the *Oregon* and the *Brooklyn*, Admiral Schley's flag-ship, and was forced to surrender. But her crew sank her before the American sailors could get on board. In a few hours, this entire Spanish fleet had been destroyed (July 3, 1898); hundreds of the Spanish sailors had been killed, wounded, or drowned, and about sixteen hundred of them, including the brave old admiral, had been captured. As the American battleship *Texas* ranged by the stern of a beaten Spanish cruiser, the sailors began to cheer; but Captain Philip cried out: "Don't cheer. The poor fellows are dying!" On the American ships only one man was killed and two wounded.

417. The capture of Santiago. — The siege of Santiago now went on more vigorously than ever. The vessels even took part in it, sending their shells high in the air over the hills that lay between them and the town. The rainy weather came on, and the American troops lying in the trenches suffered greatly, as they also did from lack of good food. The Spanish general surrendered, not only Santiago, but all the troops in eastern Cuba. On July 17, 1898, General Shafter and the American army entered the city.

418. The capture of Porto Rico. — General Nelson A. Miles, the commanding general of the United States army, now led an expedition to Porto Rico. Instead of landing

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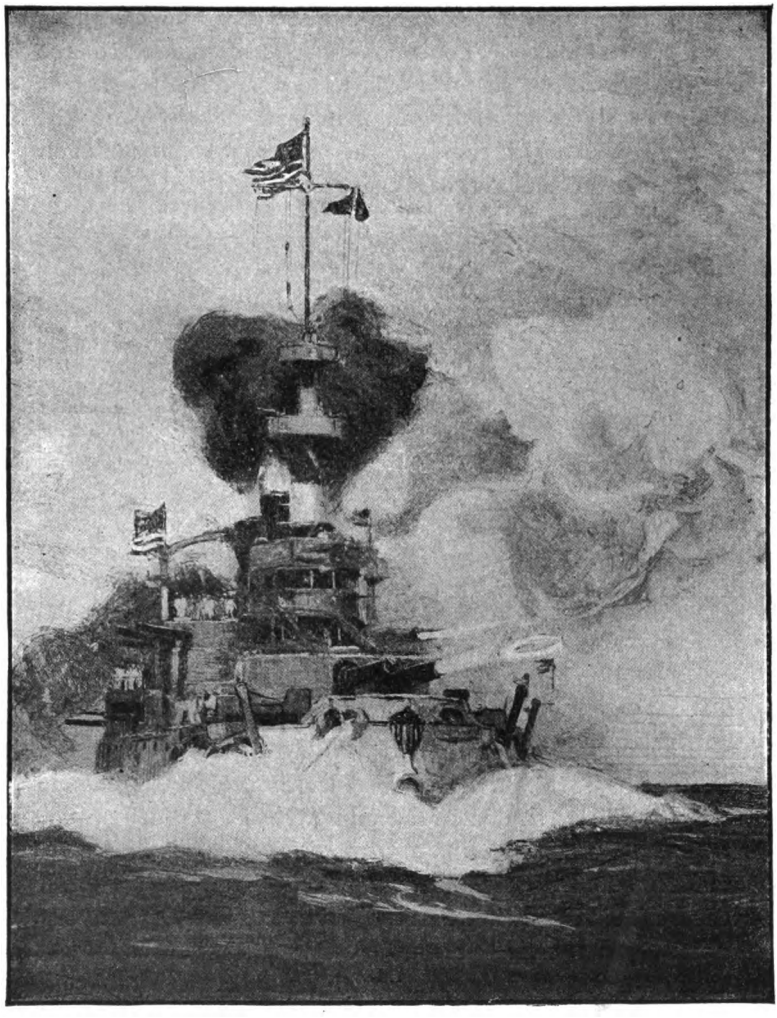

The "Oregon" in pursuit of the "Cristobal Colon" during the battle of Santiago.

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his men on the northern side of the island near the fortified city of San Juan, he disembarked them on the southern side near the town of Ponce (August 1), so named for the old Spanish conqueror of Porto Rico who gave Florida its name (§ 13). The inhabitants, instead of opposing the invaders, welcomed them. The Americans began their march across the island to lay siege to San Juan, but before

Battery in Action.

they could reach that place, news came of a suspension of hostilities between the United States and Spain.

419. **The Treaty of Peace.** — According to the agreement as it was finally signed in December, 1898, at Paris, Spain gave up all claim to Cuba and ceded Porto Rico and other smaller West India Islands to the United States. She also ceded the Philippines upon the payment of twenty million dollars by the United States. Cuba was governed by the Americans for several years until a republic was established there in 1902. Even then the United States retained some rights of protection over Cuba and gave its people certain privileges in sending their products to our country. Unfor-

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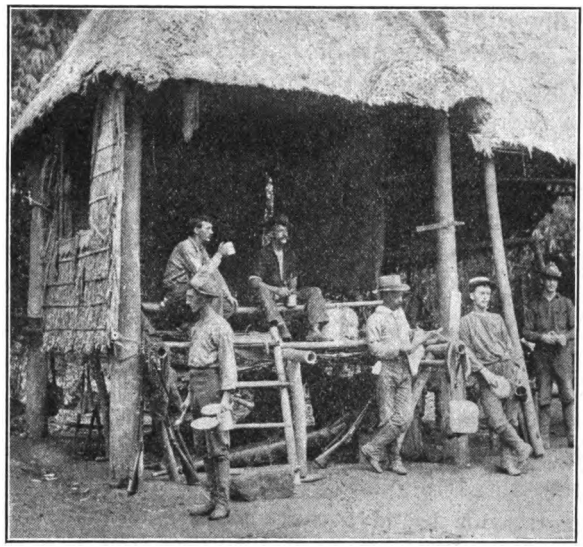
tunately, the self-government of Cuba has not worked very well. In 1906, internal disorders in the island became so threatening that we were again obliged to establish a military government there, but three years later, in 1909, the government was again restored to its inhabitants.

420. The Philippines. — Many of the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands expected that they, too, would be given



Camping in the Native Huts in the Philippines.

rights of self-government as were the Cubans, and when we began to govern them as a dependent colony, a rebellion broke out. Many people in the United States were opposed to the acquisition of this far-off colony. They thought that the American republic would better go on as it had for so many years apart from the rest of the world. The insurrection in the Philippines was put down after a good deal of trouble, and the islands have been governed wisely and

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well by commissions of Americans. Recently an assembly, something like our state legislatures, has been established in the islands, and still more recently, some of the principal products of the islands have been allowed to come into the United States free of duty, so that now greater prosperity and contentment seem to be likely. In this work of reconciling the Filipinos to our rule, William H. Taft of Ohio, as Governor-general of the islands, as Secretary of War, and finally as President, has borne a leading part.

421. **Annexation of the Hawaiian Islands.** — The Hawaiian Islands, lying out in the Pacific Ocean about one-third of the way from San Francisco to Manila, have long been associated with America. In the early days whaling ships frequently used the Hawaiian harbor of Honolulu to refit and replenish their supplies. Later, came American missionaries who converted the natives to Christianity and, finally, came capitalists and planters who engaged in the cultivation of sugar. The American inhabitants of the islands had long wished for annexation to the United States. The position of Hawaii is important from the point of view of the protection of the Pacific coast, and now doubly important as a stopping place on the way to and from the Philippines. Moreover, it would be very disadvantageous to have the islands owned by a strong foreign power, like England or Japan. For all these reasons, they were annexed, July 7, 1898, and are governed as a territory of the United States.[1]

422. **President McKinley murdered.** — In November, 1900, President McKinley was elected for a second term. The new Vice-president was Theodore Roosevelt, who was

[1] The United States also acquired from Spain other islands in the Pacific which are marked on the accompanying map. The most important of these is Guam, one of the Ladrone Islands. There is also Wake Island, which the United States has taken as a station on the cable line across the Pacific.

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DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

All on same scale as United States.

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of the great corporations to the people. Many of these are called public service corporations because they perform for the people services that are oftentimes done by the government in European countries.[1] There are the railroads, for example. They need the help and protection of the government, and the farmers and manufacturers could not conduct their businesses without them. The railroads had become accustomed to charging different rates to great shippers and small ones. To him who sent car-loads and train-loads of goods, they gave lower rates than they gave to him who sent only one car-load or part of a car-load. Attempts had been made to put an end to this favoring the great dealers, but so far the results had not been very satisfactory. President Roosevelt was determined that every one throughout the country should have "a square deal." He was so earnest and so popular with the people that Congress passed more stringent laws which will go far to prevent unjust discrimination.

432. Preserving our resources. — President Roosevelt was greatly interested in the saving of our natural riches. He summoned the governors of the states and other leading men to advise with him as to the best means of putting an end to the wasteful methods that had been so long employed in developing our farms and mines, and in using up our forests. While our country was thinly settled, rude methods of agriculture and mining were necessarily used; but now that the population has grown to be so great, we must produce more corn to an acre and must find some means of growing new forests to replace those that are fast disappearing.

433. Improvements in living. — A great deal has been done to improve the physical condition of the American

[1] In Germany, for instance, the government owns the railroads; and in Glasgow, Scotland, the city owns the street car lines.

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people by limiting the sale of liquor and by inducing the people to lead a more outdoor life. Roosevelt was himself an athlete and believed in encouragement of athletic sports. He also set on foot investigations into the methods used by the packers and manufacturers of food supplies for the consumption of our people and for exportation to other countries. The states and cities have joined in this good work, so that now a national law requires that meat shall be prepared in clean rooms and that the labels on all packages of food shall truthfully state whether the food is pure or not.

Great efforts are being made to teach the people how to conquer a disease called consumption, which especially attacks those who live in dark and badly ventilated dwellings and can be avoided and often cured by living in the open air. Medical science has also greatly advanced so that many diseases like diphtheria can now nearly always be cured. The result of this new attention to better methods of living has been to prolong the duration of life several years and to make men healthier and happier all the time.

434. **Great disasters.** — It must not be supposed that the people of the United States have been free from disasters. Terrible fires have more than once burned over great portions of our towns and cities, as the Chicago fire in 1871, and the Boston fire in 1872. Then floods, like the Johnstown flood of 1889, have sometimes swept away whole towns. Tidal waves and hurricanes, like that which destroyed the greater part of Galveston, Texas, in 1900, have often devastated low-lying cities. The greatest of all these disasters was the earthquake which visited San Francisco in April, 1906. Buildings swayed and tumbled, destroying the chimneys and thus causing fires which spread rapidly because the settling of the ground had broken the water pipes in the streets. Hundreds and thousands of men, women,

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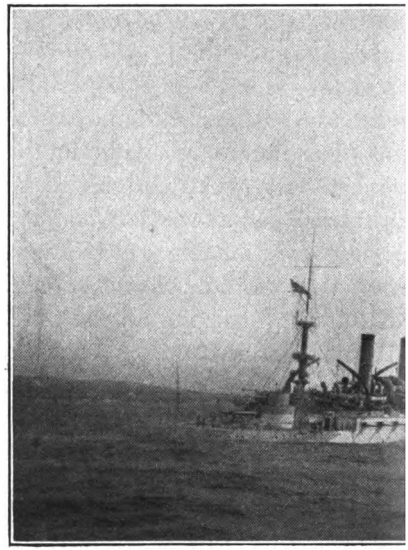
and children were driven from
starving, were compelled to camp
squares. Great as was the calam
people of the United States was
tions of money and clothing were
country, and in a few days the s
comfortable.

435. **The United States a wor**
minions which came to us as the



On the Way around the World. The

have forced the United States to
tional affairs as it never had do
have gone to China to act in co
of European powers; and after R
fighting one another for a long
interfered and brought about neg

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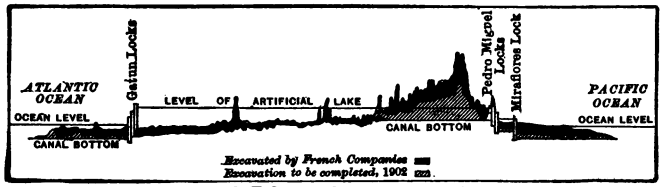
ended in the Treaty of Portsmouth. In December, 1907, a fleet of sixteen battleships started to sail around the world and completed their voyage on time and without mishap early in 1909. Never before had such a great naval fleet gone on so long an expedition.[1] The voyage fairly marked the entrance of the United States into international politics as a world power.

436. **The Panama Canal.** — For hundreds of years people have talked about completing the work of Columbus by cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama, and thus



PROFILE OF THE PANAMA CANAL

providing a western water route from Europe to India. The French were the first to seriously try to do this; but after two French canal companies had failed, the United States government took the matter in hand, and work was begun on a very large scale. The engineers in charge promised to have the canal completed in 1915. When done, it will be one of the wonders of the world.

437. **Summary.** — Theodore Roosevelt became President in 1901 on the death of McKinley, and was elected President in 1904. In the one hundred years since the elec-

[1] Since the combat between the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* (§ 360) the fighting vessels of the world have been entirely reconstructed. Modern battleships and armored cruisers combine the best qualities of these historic craft. Their sides and decks are armored, as were those of the *Merrimac*, and their heavy guns are carried in revolving turrets similar to that of the *Monitor*. Every year these ships are increasing in size, so that the newest battleships carry immense engines, have large batteries of heavy guns, and are very fast.

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tion of Jefferson, the population of t increased fifteen fold, and its territor one-half times. Millions of immigra country since the close of Jackson's a have come, for the most part, fron Scandinavia, and in recent years fro and Italy. The growth of the railro possible the development of the cou up of great cities. The United State manufacturing country in the world. aroused the people to reform abuse the natural resources, and to live heal He also made the United States tak affairs and began the work of cuttin

TAFT'S ADMINISTRATI

W. H. Taft.

438. Preside rated o at once sion of the ma After t been at Preside into hi sisted u other i the fre

[1] William H. Taft was born in Ohio in 1857, a lege in 1878. He studied law and was appointe Court for the Ohio District, where he gave several growing out of labor troubles. President McKi of the Philippines. Then he became Secretary of tration, and held that office when he was nomina

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reducing the duty on lumber and some other things. He also suggested the laying of a small tax on the incomes of all corporations. Congress fell in with these suggestions and passed the new act. His administration thus vigorously begun promises to carry on the work of reformation which is associated with his predecessor's name.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

Recent Events

- ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION, 1901–1909. AROUSING THE PUBLIC CONSCIENCE
  - *The United States in 1900.*
  - *Justice for All.*
  - *Preserving our Resources.*
  - *Great Disasters.*
  - *The Panama Canal.*
- TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION, 1909–
  - *A New Tariff.*

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APPENDIX I

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

In Congress, July 4, 1776,

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

WHEN in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment

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of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our People, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

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For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our Consent:

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

For suspending our own Legislature, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free People.

Nor have We been wanting in attention to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations,

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which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States ; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the Protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire — JOSIAH BARTLETT, WM. WHIPPLE, MATTHEW THORNTON.

Massachusetts Bay — SAML. ADAMS, JOHN ADAMS, ROBT. TREAT PAINE, ELBRIDGE GERRY.

Rhode Island — STEP. HOPKINS, WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut — ROGER SHERMAN, SAM'EL HUNTINGTON, WM. WILLIAMS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York — WM. FLOYD, PHIL. LIVINGSTON, FRANS. LEWIS, LEWIS MORRIS.

New Jersey — RICHD. STOCKTON, JNO. WITHERSPOON, FRAS. HOPKINSON, JOHN HART, ABRA. CLARK.

Pennsylvania — ROBT. MORRIS, BENJAMIN RUSH, BENJA. FRANKLIN, JOHN MORTON, GEO. CLYMER, JAS. SMITH, GEO. TAYLOR, JAMES WILSON, GEO. ROSS.

Delaware — CÆSAR RODNEY, GEO. READ, THO. M'KEAN.

Maryland — SAMUEL CHASE, WM. PACA, THOS. STONE, CHARLES CARROLL of Carrollton.

Virginia — GEORGE WYTHE, RICHARD HENRY LEE, TH. JEFFERSON, BENJA. HARRISON, THOS. NELSON, jr., FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE, CARTER BRAXTON.

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North Carolina — WM. HOOPER, JOSEPH HEWES, JOHN PENN.

South Carolina — EDWARD RUTLEDGE, THOS. HEYWARD, Junr., THOMAS LYNCH, Junr., ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

Georgia — BUTTON GWINNETT, LYMAN HALL, GEO. WALTON.[1]

[1] The arrangement of the names of the signers has been changed from that given in the Revised Statutes. The names are spelled as in the original.

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APPENDIX II

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA *

WE THE PEOPLE of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE. I.

SECTION. 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Represent-

* Reprinted from the text issued by the State Department.

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ative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

SECTION. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office

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of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

SECTION. 4. The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

SECTION. 5. Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been encreased during such time; and no Person

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holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

SECTION. 7. All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

SECTION. 8. The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

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cotton manufactures, rice, rosin, and turpentine, and manufactures of iron and steel. Georgia was named for the English king, and was the last of the thirteen original states to be founded. Georgia seceded with the other cotton states at the time of the Civil War. It is one of the richest states and is often called the "Empire State of the South."

(THE REMAINING STATES ACCORDING TO THE DATE OF THEIR ADMISSION.)

Vermont.—Admitted, 1791; capital, Montpelier. Quarrying marble, manufacturing articles of wood, and weaving cotton and the making of maple syrup are the principal industries. For a long time the land included within Vermont was claimed by New Hampshire and New York. During the Revolution the people instituted a government of their own and later were admitted to the Union as the fourteenth state. Vermont ("green mountains") takes its name from the mountains that run throughout the state from north to south.

Kentucky.—Admitted, 1792; capital, Frankfort; chief city, Louisville. Its principal products are tobacco, hemp, coal, horses, and corn. It also distills large quantities of whiskey. Daniel Boone led the first English settlers to this region and, once opened to civilization, it grew with great rapidity. Originally, it was a part of Virginia. Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky and Henry Clay represented it in Congress for a generation. It is popularly called "the Blue Grass State" on account of its rich herbage.

Tennessee.—Admitted, 1796; capital, Nashville; chief city, Memphis. Its leading industries are the raising of cotton, tobacco, mining of coal, and the quarrying of marble. At the time of the Civil War, the people of eastern Tennessee were largely in favor of the Union; but the state was carried into the ranks of secession and became the scene of many of the fiercest conflicts of the war.

Ohio.—Admitted, 1802 (§ 261); capital, Columbus; chief city, Cleveland. Its leading products are those of agriculture, including corn and wheat, iron and steel manufactures, petroleum and coal. Ohio was settled by colonists from New England and the Middle States, with a few from the South. Lying between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River, and possessing a rich soil and great mineral resources, Ohio has rapidly developed in every way, until now it is the fourth state in point of population. Next to Virginia, it has given to the United States the largest number of Presidents. It is popularly called the "Buckeye State," from the buckeye or horse-chestnut tree which flourishes there.

Louisiana.—Admitted, 1812; capital, Baton Rouge; chief city, New

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Orleans. Its leading products are sugar cane, from which sugar and molasses are refined, cotton, including the preparation of the fibre and the separation of the cotton seed, rice, and manufactures of wood. It was part of the great French province of Louisiana which came to us by purchase in 1803. From an early time New Orleans has been prominent commercially, and this has been greatly increased by the building of jetties to deepen the mouth of the Mississippi River. Louisiana seceded from the Union at the time of the Civil War.

Indiana. — Admitted, 1816; capital and chief city, Indianapolis. Its leading products are coal, corn, wheat, lumber, iron and steel manufactures. It has the largest tile and terra-cotta works in the United States. The French made the first permanent settlement at Vincennes. With the rest of New France, this region passed to the English in 1763. In the Revolution it was conquered by General Clark and formed part of the original territory of the United States. The battlefield of Tippecanoe is within the state limits. Its settlement after the Revolution was greatly aided by the building of the National Road and of the Wabash and Erie canals. It is popularly known as "the Hoosier State."

Mississippi. — Admitted, 1817; capital, Jackson. Its chief products are cotton, corn, lumber, and timber. Natchez, which was settled by the French, is the oldest city on the great river with the exception of New Orleans. Another famous place within its limits is Vicksburg, which for a long time held off the Union armies in the Civil War. Mississippi seceded from the Union at the time of the Civil War.

Illinois. — Admitted, 1818; capital, Springfield; chief city, Chicago. Its leading products are grain, especially corn and wheat; cattle, hogs, and meat-packing, coal and manufactures of iron and steel. Portions of the state were traversed by the early French explorers and posts were established at Cahokia, Kaskaskia, and Fort Chartres. This region became English by the treaty of 1763. During the Revolution, George Rogers Clark captured Kaskaskia and other English posts and, in 1783, the territory of the United States was extended to the Mississippi. The city of Chicago occupies the site of Fort Dearborn, which was the scene of a dreadful massacre, and of some of the most stirring events in our history. Chicago is now the second city in the Union in point of population. It is often called the "Prairie State."

Alabama. — Admitted, 1819; capital, Montgomery; chief city, Mobile. For a long time cotton was its chief product and it was popularly known as the "Cotton State," but now iron and steel manufactures, lumber and timber, coal and cotton goods have become very important. Ala-

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bama is named for its principal river, which is said in Indian to mean "Here we rest." For a short time its capital served as the capital of the Southern Confederacy. De Soto, the Spanish explorer, marched across it in 1540. The French much later made settlements on or near Mobile Bay; but the permanent occupation of the state dates from about 1800. It formed a part of Mississippi Territory, and seceded during the Civil War.

Maine. — Admitted, 1820; capital, Augusta; chief city, Portland. Its leading products are lumber, dairy products and the manufacture of cotton goods, the products of wood, canning and preserving of fish. After unsuccessful early attempts at settlement, permanent colonists began coming soon after the founding of Plymouth. In 1678, Massachusetts bought Maine of its proprietors, but it became a part of that province in 1691 and so remained until it was formed into a separate state in 1820. Because of its beautiful coast and lakes and attractive climate, it has become a favorite resort for summer visitors. It is sometimes called "the Pine Tree State," from the splendid forests which once covered it.

Missouri. — Admitted, 1821 (§ 286 note); capital, Jefferson City; chief city, St. Louis. Its leading products are hogs, cattle, zinc, lead, coal, corn, wheat, and iron. For a long time Missouri was the only settled part of the country west of the Mississippi and north of Louisiana. At the time of the Civil War, it was doubtful whether she would join the seceded states or remain in the Union. The influence of the many recent German immigrants to her borders was thrown decisively against secession.

Arkansas. — Admitted, 1836; capital, Little Rock. Its leading products are those of agriculture, especially cotton, wheat, and apples, for which the state is famous. It also produces coal and lumber and wooden manufactures. The state takes its name from its principal river, which in turn was named for the Arkansas tribe of Indians. It was explored by the Spaniards in 1541, but its settlement was long deferred. At one time it was part of the Louisiana Purchase. It seceded from the Union during the Civil War and is sometimes called "The Bear State."

Michigan. — Admitted, 1837; capital, Lansing; chief city, Detroit. Its leading products are grain, iron and copper, salt, lumber, and manufactures of iron and wood, especially furniture. Detroit was the first important town to be settled in the interior of the continent. It commands the passage between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, as is also the

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case with Sault St. Marie between Lake Huron and Lake Superior. The first of the great state Universities of the West was established at Ann Arbor, where it still is. The state takes its name from two Indian words meaning "great water."

Florida. — Admitted, 1845; capital, Tallahassee; chief city, Jacksonville. Its leading products are lumber, tar, turpentine, and fruits, especially oranges. Owing to its southern situation, Florida enjoys a warm winter climate and is visited by thousands of people from the Northern states. Florida was originally settled by the Spaniards. It became English in 1763, but was returned to the Spaniards twenty years later. In 1819, the United States bought it of the Spanish king. The Seminoles, a fierce Indian tribe, lived in Florida, and caused much trouble before they were subdued. St. Augustine, on the eastern coast, is the oldest town in North America. Key West, situated on an island off the end of Florida, is a great center of tobacco manufacturing. Florida seceded from the Union at the time of the Civil War.

Texas. — Admitted, 1845 (§ 316 note); capital, Austin; chief city, Galveston. Its leading products are cattle, sheep, cotton, corn, wheat, rice, oil, and vegetables. The possession of Texas was for a long time disputed between the French and the Spaniards, and it is even now a question whether it once formed part of French Louisiana. In 1819, the United States conceded it to be Spanish territory, but its people with the Mexicans soon rebelled from Spain and set up a federal republic of their own. Settlers came into Texas from the United States. Before long, they seceded from the Mexican republic and later joined the Union. The natural wealth of Texas is enormous, and its principal commercial city, Galveston, is one of the great exporting towns of the country. It has suffered disasters from tidal waves; but its citizens have not only recovered from these, but have instituted a municipal government that is watched with interest by reformers all over the country.

Iowa. — Admitted, 1846; capital, Des Moines. Its leading products are coal, corn, hogs, and cattle. Agriculture is an important industry. The state takes its name from its principal river, which is said to mean in the Indian language "the sleepy ones." Iowa was the first state west of the Mississippi to prohibit negro slavery. It is popularly called the "Hawkeye State."

Wisconsin. — Admitted, 1848; capital, Madison; chief city, Milwaukee. Its leading industries are dairy farming, lumbering, iron mining, and the raising of corn and oats. Wisconsin was the last state to

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be formed out of the old Northwest Territory. Great numbers of German and Scandinavian immigrants have done much to develop the natural resources of the state.

California. — Admitted, 1850; capital, Sacramento; principal cities, San Francisco and Los Angeles. Its leading industries are the raising of fruit, wheat, sheep, and lumber, and mining for gold and silver. Spanish and English explorers visited its coast in early days. Its first settlements were Spanish mission stations. California remained a province of Mexico until 1848, although it had been previously occupied by American soldiers, and although the first American immigrants had gone there nearly a quarter of a century earlier. In 1849, there was a rush of immigrants to dig for gold, which had been discovered in the previous year. Its wealth has increased enormously in recent years, and it has two large and flourishing universities within its borders. California's wonderful climate has attracted to it thousands of persons from other parts of the country, seeking rest and outdoor life.

Minnesota. — Admitted, 1858; capital, St. Paul; chief city, Minneapolis; these "Twin cities" on opposite banks of the Mississippi, at the Falls of St. Anthony, are in reality one great city. Its leading industries are the production of wheat and barley, the manufacture of wheat into flour, and the making of cheese and butter, and mining of iron. Minnesota also produces lumber and manufactures of wood. The upper Mississippi was explored by the French missionaries and traders, but it was not until the coming of the great German and Scandinavian migrations that Minnesota began to grow with rapidity. It is popularly called the "North Star State."

Oregon. — Admitted, 1859; capital, Salem; chief city, Portland. Lumber, iron, coal, wheat, and fruit are its important products. For a long time this region was disputed between the United States and Great Britain, but the settlements following on the missionary stations established by Marcus Whitman and others gave the preponderence to the Americans.

Kansas. — Admitted, 1861; capital, Topeka. Agriculture is the leading industry. The chief products are wheat and corn, hogs and cattle, zinc and coal. Coronado entered the area of this state in 1541. But it was not until after 1850 that its settlement began in earnest. Then came a fierce contest between the slavery men and the free state men as to which should gain the upper hand. Finally, the free-staters gained the victory, but the Southerners in Congress opposed its admission as a free state so strenuously that this was not brought about until

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the secession of the Southern states removed these opponents from Congress.

West Virginia. — Admitted, 1863; capital, Charleston; chief city, Wheeling. Its leading industries are the production of coal, iron, and petroleum. When Virginia seceded, the people of the western portion wished to remain faithful to the Union. In the midst of the conflict, they were recognized by Congress as a separate state.

Nevada. — Admitted, 1864; capital, Carson City. Its leading products are gold, silver, copper, and rock salt. Nevada is in the arid region. At the present time, its wealth is derived mainly from the rich mineral deposits within its borders.

Nebraska. — Admitted, 1867; capital, Lincoln; chief city, Omaha. Its leading industries are the raising of corn, wheat, cattle, hogs, and the packing of meat. Nebraska Territory was formed in 1854 and included that vast region north of Kansas and west of the first belt of states on the western side of the Mississippi. The present state of that name includes only the south-eastern corner of the old Territory.

Colorado. — Admitted, 1876; capital and principal city, Denver. Its leading industries are silver, gold, and lead mining and agriculture. Zebulon Pike was its first American explorer and from him, its grandest mountain, Pikes Peak, takes its name. Like California, its splendid climate has attracted thousands of health seekers from other parts of the Union.

North Dakota. — Admitted, 1889; capital, Bismarck. Its leading products are wheat, cattle, sheep, hay, oats, flax, barley. The two Dakotas take their name from an Indian tribe. Originally, they were part of the Louisiana Purchase. Lewis and Clark wintered within the limits of North Dakota. The great progress in the adaptation of machinery to farming contributed especially to the settlement of this State which now contains some of the largest wheat farms in the world.

South Dakota. — Admitted, 1889; capital, Pierre. Its leading industries are the raising of grain, wheat, cattle, sheep, flax, and mining for gold. Minerals are also to be found here in varying quantities. In the south-western part of the state are the "Black Hills" which are rich in mineral deposits.

Montana. — Admitted, 1889; capital, Helena; chief city, Butte. Its leading products are silver, gold, copper, sheep, and cattle. Originally Montana was a great cattle and sheep raising region, but the discovery of rich deposits of copper and of the precious metals made a great change in its development. Recently the great progress of irrigation

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has led to another change, so that in the future fruit and vegetables will be among its important products.

Washington. — Admitted, 1889; capital, Olympia; Seattle and Tacoma are important cities. Its leading occupations are lumbering, mining for iron and coal, raising wheat and fruit, and the canning of salmon. This state has magnificent scenery, and is rapidly growing in importance because of its great natural resources.

Idaho. — Admitted, 1890; capital, Boise. Mining for gold, silver, and lead is its leading industry. Lewis and Clark were the first white men to visit the state, which is very mountainous, the word Idaho meaning "gem of the mountains." One of the greatest lava plains in the world is in the valley of the Columbia River and extends into Idaho. In the northern part of the state are great forests of red cedar.

Wyoming. — Admitted, 1890; capital, Cheyenne. Its leading products are sheep, cattle, coal, and petroleum. Lately irrigation has been introduced so that Wyoming bids fair to enter the ranks of the great agricultural and fruit-raising states. In the north-western corner and extending into Montana and Idaho is the national reservation known as Yellowstone Park which is famous the world over for its magnificent scenery and its remarkable geysers.

Utah. — Admitted, 1896; capital and chief city, Salt Lake City. Its leading industries are agriculture, and mining for gold, silver, and lead. Of late years the introduction of irrigation has made possible the production of agricultural products on a large scale. Salt Lake City is a great railroad and industrial center. The Mormons originally settled this city and other parts of Utah and for years maintained their supremacy; but the rich resources of the country have attracted so many people thither that now the Mormons are only one of many sects in the state.

Oklahoma. — Admitted, 1907; capital, Guthrie. Its leading industries are the raising of sheep, cattle, cotton, wheat, and corn and lumber. Oklahoma was made up from several smaller bits of territory, including the piece of unorganized land that lay directly north of the Texas panhandle and lands which had been reserved for the occupation of Indian tribes. Within the last fifteen or twenty years its growth has been truly marvellous.

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APPENDIX V

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

I

Discovery and Exploration, 1000–1606

1. Who were the discoverers of America?
2. Trace on a map the eastern trade routes of the fifteenth century.
3. Tell the story of the early life of Columbus.
4. Trace his four voyages on the map.
5. How did America get its name?
6. Why is Balboa remembered?
7. Why was Magellan's expedition famous?
8. By what right did Spain claim Florida?
9. Trace De Soto's and Coronado's routes on the map.
10. Who laid claim to America for England?
11. Who was the first Englishman to sail around the globe?
12. Name the French explorers and tell what each explored.
13. Tell about the Spanish Armada. Why is it such an important event?
14. What were the principal divisions of the Indian race?
15. Tell about the League of the Iroquois.

For Special Study

1. Arrange a table of the various explorers you have studied as follows: —

Date	Spanish	French	English	Lands Discovered or Explored
1492	Columbus			West Indies
1497			John Cabot	Mainland of North America

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2. Draw on a map the routes of all the explorers mentioned above.

3. What were some of the important inventions in the fifteenth century?

4. The American Indians at the time of Columbus.

II

Planting of a Nation in the New World, 1607–1660

1. Why did the settlers come to Virginia?

2. What did the name Virginia apply to at this time? Show on map.

3. Describe the settlement at Jamestown.

4. Explain how slaves happened to be imported into Virginia. What do you understand by servants in the colony?

5. Tell about the assembly at Jamestown. Why was it important?

6. Who settled Maryland?

7. What were the industries of Maryland?

8. Tell about the first permanent settlement made by the English north of Maryland.

9. How did the settlers of the Massachusetts Bay Colony differ from those of New Plymouth?

10. Describe the religious troubles in Massachusetts.

11. What were the various settlements in northern New England?

12. How did southern New England happen to be settled?

13. Trace Henry Hudson's journeyings on the map.

14. Tell about the founding of New Netherland. What is meant by "patroons"?

15. Who was Peter Stuyvesant?

16. Point out on the map the settlements up to 1660.

17. How did the settlements in the North differ from those in the South?

18. In what ways were the governments alike? How did they differ?

19. In what colony was religion absolutely free? How was it in the other colonies?

20. Who were the Quakers? How were they treated in the different colonies?

21. How were people punished in colonial days?

For Special Study

1. The story of Captain John Smith and Pocahontas.

2. The life of the Pilgrims in England and Holland before coming to America.

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III

Growth of the Colonies, 1660–1760

1. Tell about the conquering of New Netherland by the English.
2. For what is Governor Dongan noted?
3. To whom was New Jersey granted? How was it colonized?
4. By whom were the Carolinas settled?
5. What was the cause of disagreement between the proprietors and the colonists in Carolina?
6. Tell about the Indian troubles in Carolina.
7. Who was Blackbeard?
8. How came Carolina to be divided?
9. When and by whom was the first settlement in Georgia made?
10. Who was William Penn?
11. What was his relation to the Indians?
12. Describe the founding of Philadelphia.
13. What was the Charter of Privileges?
14. How did Delaware happen to become a separate colony?
15. Why is Mason and Dixon's Line famous?

For Special Study

1. In which colony would you have liked to live, and why?
2. Write a composition telling about the life in that colony.
3. History of the Quakers.
4. Arrange the thirteen colonies in order of settlement according to the following table: —

Name of Colony	Date	Where Settled	By Whom	For What Reason
Virginia	1607	Jamestown	English	Wealth, adventure, and trade

5. Make a map showing the location of the thirteen colonies.

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IV

The French in America

1. Describe Champlain's method of attacking an Indian stronghold.
2. Tell about the French on the Great Lakes.
3. Who was La Salle? Trace his explorations on the map.
4. Who founded Louisiana?
5. State the causes of the early Indian wars.
6. Who was King Philip?
7. Tell about Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia.
8. What effect did the English Revolution of 1688 have on America?
9. Explain why the French got on better with the Indians than did the English.
10. Give the principal events of each of the four French and Indian wars.
11. Point out on the map the principal points of attack.
12. What was Washington's first service?
13. Who was William Pitt?
14. Why was the Fall of Quebec important?
15. What were the terms of the Treaty of Peace of 1763?

For Special Study

1. The story of Champlain.
2. Why is the date 1759 an important one in the world's history?
3. Write an account of Washington's share in the French and Indian wars.

V

England and the Colonies, 1763–1775

1. Name and locate the thirteen colonies.
2. Describe the colonial governments.
3. What were the means of communication between the colonies?
4. Tell about the coming of the foreigners.
5. How did the occupations of the New Englanders differ from those in the Middle and Southern Colonies?
6. Tell about the population in 1763.
7. Of what importance were the negro slaves at this time?
8. What was the state of religion in 1763?

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9. Describe the colonial schools and colleges.
10. Compare the early newspapers with those of to-day.
11. Tell about the English laws for the regulation of colonial commerce.
12. What was the Stamp Act? Why was it so vigorously resisted?
13. What were Patrick Henry's Resolutions?
14. Why was the Stamp Act Congress important?
15. What was the Declaratory Act?
16. How did England attempt to enforce the customs laws?
17. What was the feeling in New York and Boston toward the English soldiers?
18. Tell about the Boston Massacre.
19. What customs duties were removed?
20. Tell about the burning of the *Gaspee*.
21. What were the Virginia Resolves?
22. Describe the Boston Tea Party.
23. Why was the port of Boston closed?
24. Tell about the First Continental Congress.
25. What was Gage's plan?
26. Describe the opening battle of the war.

For Special Study

1. How were the colonial governments alike? How different?
2. How did the people in the New England colonies differ in their manners and customs from those in the middle and southern colonies?
3. A short account of the life of Patrick Henry.
4. What were England's reasons for taxing the colonies?
5. How did William Pitt feel towards America?

VI

The Revolutionary War

1. What were England's chances of victory?
2. Who were the Hessians?
3. Describe the battle of Bunker Hill.
4. What action did the Second Continental Congress take?
5. What was the result of the Canada Expedition?
6. What was the result of the British attack on Charleston, S.C.?
7. What forced the British to evacuate Boston?

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8. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence? When was it adopted? When signed?

9. Who were the "Loyalists"?

10. Describe the battle of Long Island.

11. Why was Washington forced to retreat from New York into Pennsylvania?

12. Describe battles of Trenton and Princeton.

13. What was the plan of campaign in 1777?

14. Locate the following places on the map and tell which side was victorious in the battles: Brandywine Creek, Germantown, Bennington, Oriskany, and Saratoga.

15. Who was the most famous naval captain of the Revolution and what did he do?

16. Describe the winter at Valley Forge.

17. Who were Lafayette and Steuben?

18. Describe Clark's western campaign.

19. Tell about Arnold's treason.

20. Locate on the map the following places: Charleston, Camden, King's Mountain, Cowpens, Guilford Court House, and Yorktown.

21. Show how Greene lost every battle but won every campaign.

22. What was the plan of the Yorktown campaign?

23. Describe the siege and surrender.

24. Give the terms of the Treaty of Peace.

25. How did Robert Morris aid his country?

For Special Study

1. The condition of the colonies at the beginning of the Revolution.
2. Why were the colonists successful in the Revolutionary War?
3. When did the colonies cease to be colonies?
4. The Declaration of Independence.
5. What do you think of Arnold's treason?
6. Write about any campaign, drawing a map to show the places mentioned.
7. Short account of the life of Paul Jones.

VII

The Critical Period, 1783–1789

1. What was the condition of the country in 1783?

2. For what was Daniel Boone famous? Point out the "Wilderness Road" on the map.

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3. Tell about the settlement of "The Old Northwest."

4. What caused the "hard times" in 1785–1786? Tell about "Shays's Rebellion."

5. What led Congress to authorize the calling of a federal convention in May, 1787?

6. Describe the work of the Federal Convention.

7. What were some of the difficulties which arose? How were they met?

8. What were the duties of the President?

9. Mention some of the powers of Congress.

10. What was the necessity of a Supreme Court?

11. Memorize the preamble to the Constitution.

12. Describe the first presidential election and its effect upon the people.

13. When did the inauguration take place?

For Special Study

1. Why is this called the "Critical Period"?

2. In what ways were the Articles of Confederation weak?

3. How did the new Constitution differ from the Articles of Confederation?

4. Compare Washington's inauguration with that of President Taft.

5. Write a short account of any of the prominent men of this time.

VIII

The First Three Presidents

1. Give an account of Washington's life.

2. What four great departments of government did Congress establish?

3. What were the nation's debts and how were they paid?

4. Tell about the first national tariff.

5. What was the "Whiskey Rebellion"?

6. What other money matters did the Treasury Department have to settle?

7. Describe the first census. Compare it with the last census that has been taken.

8. What was the cause of the Indian troubles in the West?

9. Tell about Jay's Treaty with England in 1794.

10. Why was a treaty with Spain in 1795 necessary?

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11. What was the Neutrality Proclamation?

12. What important invention appeared in 1793? Who was the inventor?

13. What new states were added to the Union during Washington's administration?

14. State the principal difference between Federalists and Anti-Federalists.

15. Who was the founder of the first Republican party?

16. Tell about the election of 1796.

17. What discussion led to the present location of the capital?

18. What was "The X Y Z Affair"?

19. What happened in the election of 1800 which caused Congress to adopt the Twelfth Amendment?

20. How did Jefferson's inauguration differ from those of Washington and Adams?

21. What was Jefferson's plan to lower the national debt?

22. Why did Jefferson remove so many officials from office?

23. Describe the war with Tripoli.

24. Why was the purchase of Louisiana so important?

25. Trace Lewis and Clark's expedition on the map.

26. Describe "Fulton's Folly." Why was this invention so important?

27. What law in regard to slave trade was passed in 1808?

28. Why did Congress pass the Embargo Act of 1807? What was the result of it?

29. What was the Non-Intercourse Act?

30. What was the first state made from the Northwest Territory and when was it admitted to the Union?

For Special Study

1. Show Washington's wisdom in the selection of his advisers, or members of his cabinet.
2. Show how the cotton gin affected the growth of the country.
3. Why was Washington's Neutrality Proclamation important?
4. Washington's Farewell Address.
5. Write an account of the explorations of Lewis and Clark.
6. When was the beginning of political parties?
7. Life in 1800.

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IX

Madison's Administration

1. Who succeeded Jefferson as President? What can you tell about him?
2. Who was Tecumseh? Tell about the attack at Tippecanoe.
3. Name two able men who entered the House of Representatives in 1811.
4. Why did Congress declare war against Great Britain in 1812?
5. Tell about the loss of Detroit.
6. Why was Perry's victory on Lake Erie important?
7. What did Macdonough's victory on Lake Champlain mean for the Americans?
8. Tell about the burning of Washington.
9. How did the "Star-Spangled Banner" happen to be written?
10. Describe the battle of New Orleans.
11. What made "Old Ironsides" famous?
12. Describe the encounter between the *Chesapeake* and *Shannon*.
13. In what other naval battle were the British successful?
14. What do you mean by "privateers"?
15. What were the results of the war?
16. What was the Hartford Convention?
17. Why is the War of 1812 sometimes called the Second War of Independence?

For Special Study

1. Naval battles of the War of 1812.
2. Story of the burning of Washington.
3. The "Star-Spangled Banner." Write a brief account of the history of our flag.
4. History of "Old Ironsides."

X

National Development

1. What was known as the "Era of Good Feeling"?
2. What is a tariff? Tell about the Tariff of 1816.
3. Point out on the map the states that were admitted to the Union during the years 1816 to 1819.
4. In 1820, what states asked to be admitted to the Union?

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5. What was the trouble about admitting Missouri? How did it end?
6. Tell about the Florida Treaty of 1819.
7. What was the Monroe Doctrine?
8. Describe the election of 1824.
9. Point out on the map the Cumberland Road and other routes of travel to the west.
10. Describe the Erie Canal. Why was it so very successful?
11. Describe the early railroads.
12. Who made the first successful steam locomotive in America?
13. What was the result of his invention?
14. Who was the first western President?
15. What do you mean by the "Spoils System"? Is there such a system to-day?
16. What party names were in use in Jackson's time?
17. What was the Tariff Act of 1828?
18. What did it lead to in South Carolina?
19. How did Jackson and Clay differ on this matter of Nullification?
20. Describe Webster's great speech.
21. What was an Abolitionist? What did they demand?
22. How did their views differ from those of Webster and Lincoln?
23. What encouraged the growth of the country between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi?
24. What caused the Panic of 1837?
25. Tell about the election of 1840.
26. What was the Webster-Ashburton Treaty?
27. What was the important invention of 1844?
28. Tell about the annexation of Texas.
29. Causes of the Mexican War.
30. Tell about the seizure of California and New Mexico.
31. Describe Taylor's campaign. Use map.
32. Describe Scott's campaign. Use map.
33. State the results of the war.
34. Who were the Mormons?
35. How was the Oregon question settled?
36. What new states were admitted to the Union at this time?

For Special Study

1. Compare Cooper's locomotive with one of to-day.
2. Effect of the railroads upon the country.

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3. Life of Andrew Jackson to 1828.
4. How does the Monroe Doctrine affect events to-day?
5. Write a brief account of one of the following: Calhoun, Webster, or Clay.
6. The value of the telegraph.
7. When did Mexico become a republic?
8. One of the campaigns of the Mexican War.
9. The history of the Oregon question.
10. The history of the Mormons.

XI

Slavery Extension and the Civil War

1. Tell about the rush of the "Forty-niners" to California.
2. What was the Compromise of 1850? The Kansas-Nebraska Act?
3. What new leaders took the places of Clay, Calhoun, and Webster?
4. What was meant by the "underground railroad"?
5. What invention made farming on a large scale possible in the great Northwest?
6. What was the new Republican Party?
7. Give an account of the contest over Kansas.
8. What famous book appeared at this time?
9. Who was John Brown? Tell about his "raid."
10. What made Abraham Lincoln known to the whole country? Give an account of his life.
11. What is meant by "secession"? What states seceded?
12. Name the new states that were admitted to the Union during Buchanan's term.
13. What states formed the Confederacy? Which were the "border states"? What stand did the "border states" take in regard to secession?
14. What other disappointments did the Confederates have?
15. What advantages did the North have over the South? What were the disadvantages?
16. Give an account of the occupations of the people at this time.
17. What is meant by "blockading"? What were the effects of the southern blockade?
18. What did Lincoln declare in his Inaugural Address?
19. Who were Lincoln's advisers or members of his cabinet?

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20. Give an account of the event that caused Lincoln to call for seventy-five thousand volunteers.

21. Describe the battle of Bull Run.

22. What did Grant and Thomas accomplish in the West?

23. Give an account of Farragut at New Orleans.

24. What important battles took place in the Mississippi Valley?

25. What three things interfered with McClellan's plan to capture Richmond?

26. Describe the encounter between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*.

27. Describe the second battle of Bull Run.

28. Give an account of Lee's invasion of Maryland.

29. What was the condition of affairs at the beginning of 1863?

30. In what important battles in 1863 was the North defeated? Victorious?

31. Recite Lincoln's Gettysburg Address.

32. What was the military problem of 1864?

33. Follow Grant on the map in his campaign against Lee.

34. Give an account of Sheridan in the Valley of Virginia.

35. Give an account of Sherman's Atlanta campaign. Trace on the map.

36. Describe Lee's surrender.

37. Give an account of the cost of the war.

38. Tell about the assassination of Lincoln.

For Special Study

1. Discovery of gold in California.
2. History of slavery to 1850.
3. Name the different things which encouraged farming in the West.
4. A brief account of the life of John Brown.
5. Life of Lincoln. Why was he called the First American?
6. Life in the North and South at the beginning of the Civil War.
7. Select some campaign of the Civil War — mention principal battles and their results; illustrate with a map.
8. A brief account of any one of the famous generals mentioned.
9. Condition of your own state in 1860.
10. Trace the work of Thomas or Grant through the war.

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XII

Reconstruction and Reunion

1. What three amendments were made to the Constitution during Johnson's administration?
2. On what conditions were the seceded states readmitted to the Union?
3. Why was Johnson impeached? What was the result?
4. Tell about the purchase of Alaska.
5. Why did "Reconstruction" work badly?
6. What were the first Pacific railroads?
7. Causes of the panic and hard times.
8. Describe the Centennial Exhibition of 1876.
9. What were the Alabama claims?
10. How was the election of 1876 decided?
11. What was the result of withdrawing the soldiers from the South?
12. Tell about the strikes and riots of 1877.
13. What is meant by the "civil service"? What reform was made by Congress at this time?
14. Tell about the building up of the navy.
15. How do you account for the election of Grover Cleveland?
16. What do you mean by the Australian ballot system, and when was it first adopted in the United States?
17. What was the important matter of interest during Cleveland's and Harrison's terms?
18. Give an account of the election of 1896.
19. What new states were added to the Union between 1889 and 1896?

For Special Study

1. Read the amendments to the Constitution, and show the necessity of each.
2. History of slavery from 1619–1863.
3. Conditions in the South at the close of the war.
4. Impeachment of Johnson.
5. Make a map showing United States in 1865.
6. What is meant by civil service reform?
7. The secret ballot.
8. Name some of the principal tariff measures to date.

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XIII

The Spanish War

1. Give an account of the Cuban Rebellion.
2. Explain the expression, "Remember the *Maine*."
3. Tell about Dewey at Manila.
4. What did the Atlantic fleets under Sampson and Schley accomplish?
5. Give an account of the operations on land.
6. Results of the war.
7. Tell about the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands.
8. Tell about the death of McKinley.

For Special Study

1. Conditions in Cuba at the outbreak of the Spanish War. Conditions in 1910.
2. Dewey at Manila.
3. Roosevelt as President.
4. History of Labor Unions.
5. Compare United States in 1800 with it in 1900.
6. Our Navy. { Compare "*Old Ironsides*" with a first-class battleship of to-day.
7. Life in the Philippines.

XIV

Recent Events

1. Give an account of Roosevelt's life.
2. What was the condition of the country in 1900?
3. Give an account of immigration since 1800.
4. Show the growth of the railroad since Jefferson's time. Of cities.
5. What gain has manufacturing made since 1800?
6. What is meant by a "trust"? What did Roosevelt mean by "a square deal"?
7. What attempts have been made to preserve the resources of the country?
8. What improvements in living have been made?
9. Tell about the Panama Canal.
10. Give an account of Taft's life.
11. Why did he call a special session of Congress?

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For Special Study

1. The present condition of the United States or of any part of it.
2. Political parties of the day and their principles.
3. How is your city or town governed?
4. Describe the important industries of your neighborhood, of your state.

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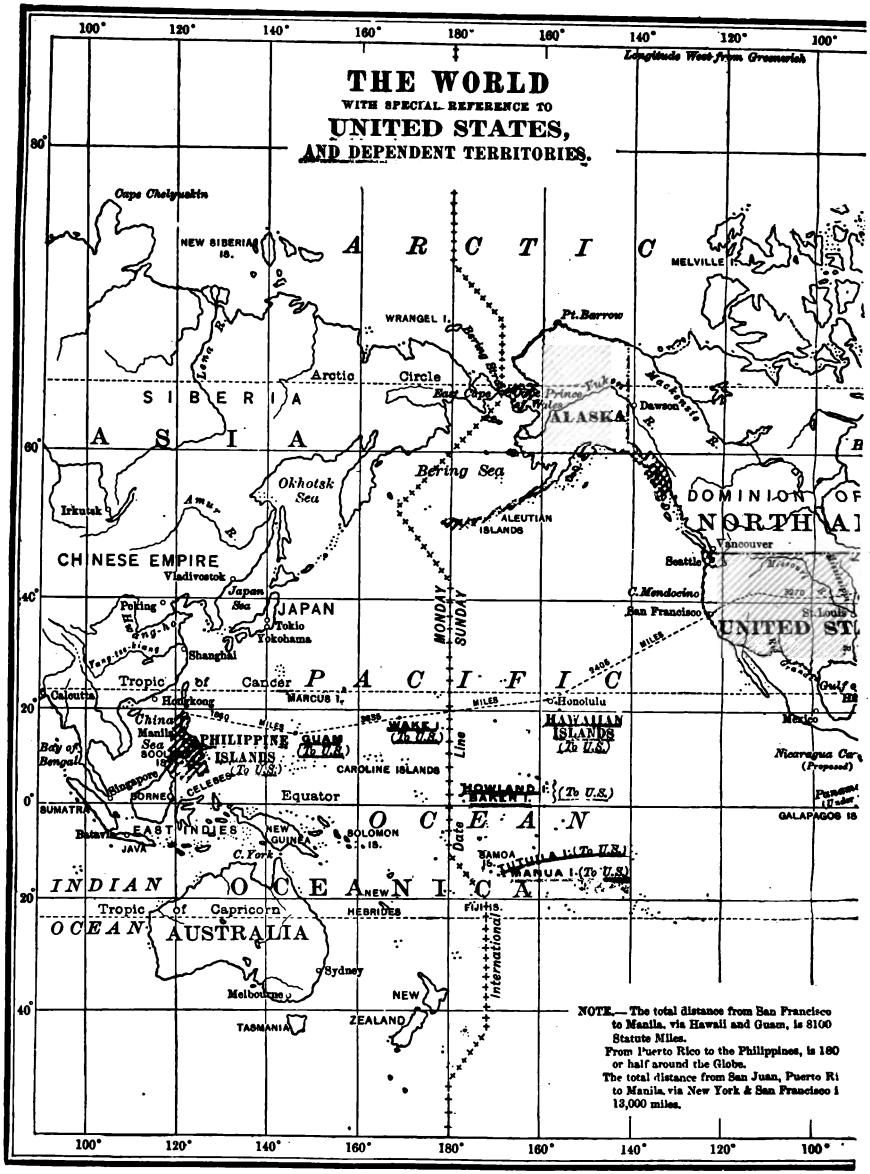

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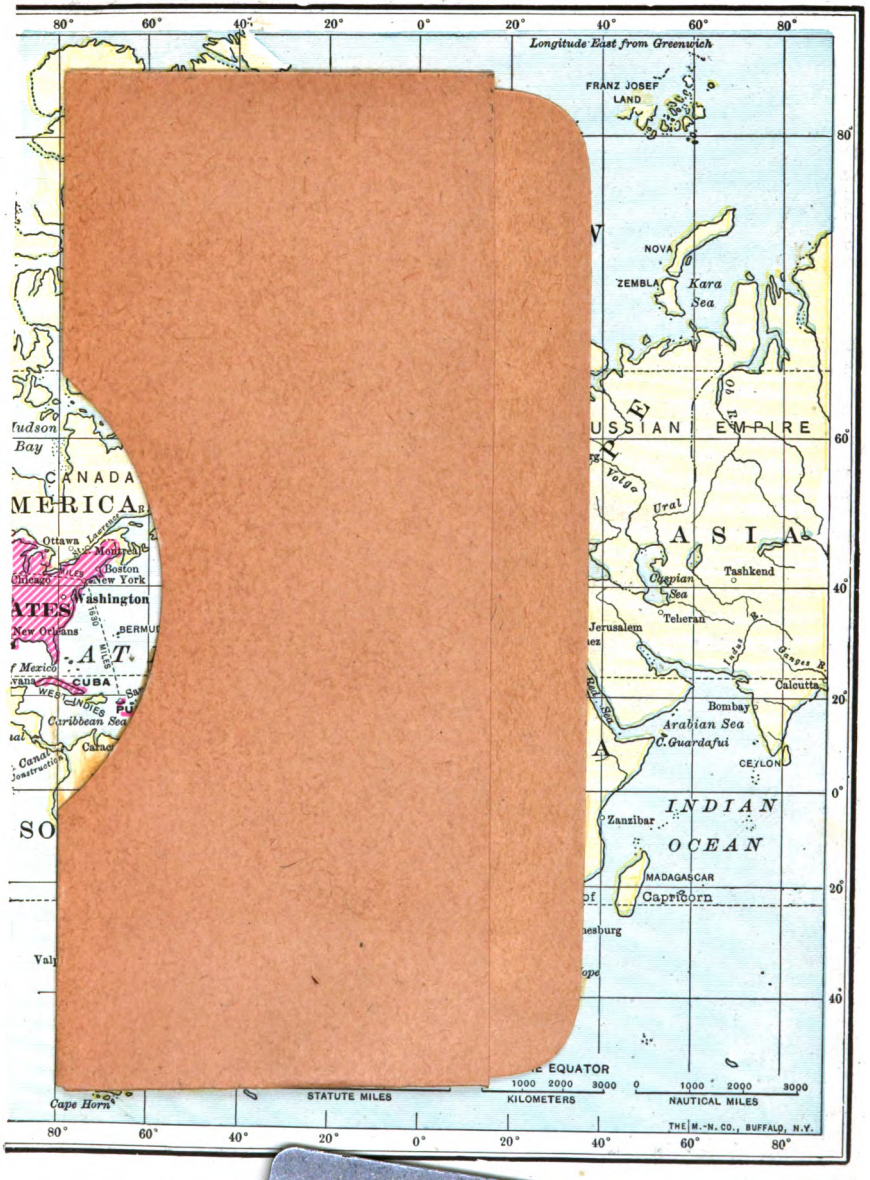

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